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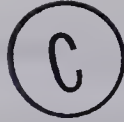
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QUALITATIVE MEANING
IN
VOCABULARY

by



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A THESIS

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Qualitative Meaning in Vocabulary" submitted by Patricia Ann Payne in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to design curriculum units to develop qualitative meaning in vocabulary. First, the principles of, and techniques for, teaching vocabulary were determined. These principles are outlined below.

- (1) The materials should contain a wide range of meaning.
- (2) The materials should be organized to facilitate the transfer of knowledge from one situation to another.
- (3) The materials should be implemented by using, primarily, the inductive method of teaching.

These principles were used as a basis for evaluating current instructional materials and as a basis for creating the units designed for this study.

The first principle was incorporated into the units. From a review of the literature it was illustrated that meaning could be attached to a symbol in the following ways:

- (1) Stating the criterial properties of an object. These attributes were demonstrated by using such categories of meaning as use, (horse - for riding), quality of, (horse - brown, agile), action of, (horse - gallops), whole-part, (horse - tail, four legs, mane).
- (2) Using the word in context to demonstrate its many meanings (horse, sea-horse, clothes horse, horse around, horse-play, charley-horse, box-horse).
- (3) Explaining the connotative meaning which corresponds to the attitude towards the object which the word represents (horse - fun, fear).
- (4) Using other words similar in meaning (horse - colt, mare, filly, gelding).

- (5) Stating the class to which the object belongs (horse-animal).

The various ways of attaching meaning to a symbol outlined above constituted the range of meaning included in the units. The range of meaning was organized into the five groups, each group providing the content for one unit. The units were organized in this manner to facilitate the transfer of knowledge from one situation to another as noted under the second principle of instruction. For example, in Unit One, the objective was to help students utilize their newly acquired knowledge to write descriptions. Unit Two focused on contextual meaning, unit Three emphasized connotative meaning and provided opportunities to display this knowledge through poetry. Unit Four contained exercises to develop precision in vocabulary and the fifth unit contained activities which required the student to judge the appropriateness of general class words and specific words in relation to the purpose of the writing.

The third principle was also incorporated into the units as the instructional procedures of the lesson provided for the inductive development of the concept, guided by the teacher's questions, but formulated by the pupils. This procedure was followed by oral discussion and written application.

It was also thought that this total program would develop an effective strategy for learning the meaning of new words as the units expand the number of semantic attributes which can be associated with a particular symbol and they also illustrate how these attributes can be used to guide and structure oral and written language.

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CHAPTER I

THE NATURE OF THE STUDY

I. INTRODUCTION

The teaching of words and of the meanings and concepts they represent is one of the major tasks of teachers at all levels of education. Considering the import of such a task, there is a paucity of research and publications from which the teacher can determine principles and techniques to be implemented in the classroom situation (Carroll, 1964). Dolch (1953) proffers some help by emphasizing the need for activity in order that meaningful learning can occur.

So a 'new verbal formula' is not a new meaning unless the individual does some active "putting together" of his own. If he just repeats, it is still "just new words for old words"

(Dolch, 1953, p. 73).

Blank and Solomon (1968) concur with Dolch when they state:

Active involvement refers not to motor activity, but rather to internal manipulation of experience. The latter applies to skills involving the ability to organize thoughts, to reflect upon situations, to comprehend meaning of events so as to be able to choose among alternatives

(Blank and Solomon, 1968, p. 380).

Generally, however, researchers in the field of vocabulary development lament the lack of systematic and carefully planned experiences. When referring to "systematic experiences" some confusion is apparent. Dolch (1953) refers to planning in the sense that particular attention be given regularly to the development of word meanings so that this

activity becomes 'a necessary part of the program' (p. 73). Other researchers, notably Dale (1965), refer to the planning of instruction in a different sense. Dale emphasizes the need to plan instruction in order that many ways of attaching meanings to symbols can be explored.

Although both writers emphasize the need for carefully planned instruction they also point out the need to take advantage of every available experience:

No one will ever know whether the planned experiences of school days are more important than incidental experiences. We plan the vocabulary of each new subject and how it is to be given meaning. But there is a vast world of meaning outside that plan
(Dolch, 1953, p. 74).

These meagre suggestions lend credence to Carroll's contention concerning the lack of principles and techniques for classroom instruction. Dolch (1953) is generally referring to "when" instruction should take place; Dale (1965) is referring to "what" kind of knowledge should be included in the instruction. Neither refers to "how" this instruction might be accomplished to teach words, meanings and concepts effectively.

For many years research in concept development has generally been confined to the domain of psychology; word meaning has been the concern of philosophy and semantics. Although words and concepts cannot be equated, their relationship is inseparable (Hazlitt, 1930; Vinacke, 1952; Serra, 1953; Russell, 1956; Vygotsky, 1962; Carroll, 1964). Many psychologists emphasize the importance of the word in concept development. For example, Vygotsky states:

Concept formation is the result of a complex activity in which all the basic intellectual functions take part. This process cannot, however, be reduced to association, attention, imagery, inference or determining tendencies. They are all indispensable, but they are insufficient without the use of the sign or word, as the means by which we direct our mental operations, control their course, and channel them toward the solution of the problem confronting us (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 58).

In contrast, researchers in vocabulary development, such as Serra (1953), stress the need to develop sound concepts to prevent 'empty verbalizations.'

In order to build concepts then, it is necessary to provide experiences in order to establish the simple concepts that will be subsequently combined and manipulated to form the more complex concepts. Concepts that can be traced back only to verbal language or to symbols acquired through language, result in mere verbalization (Serra, 1953, p. 271).

Serra further states that once the child has experienced the raw materials of a concept for which the words are symbols, he should then practise using the word in reading, writing, and speaking to establish the association between word and concept.

An understanding of the manner in which young children establish this association between word and concept is essential to ensure effective teaching in vocabulary development. Early research studies reflect the emphasis on quantifying the child's stock of words (Thorn-dike, 1921; Smith, 1941). More recent research addressed itself to the problem of how words are associated with concepts (Feifel and Lorge, 1950; Annett, 1959; Burns, 1960). This latter approach to vocabulary development, which is more qualitative than quantitative, has important implications for teaching.

What is meant by quantity of meaning? This statement usually refers to the number of words a child can recognize on a vocabulary test. For example, Smith (1941) approximated that a child has a total meaning vocabulary of 24,000 on reaching school age. This emphasis on quantity reflects the type of teaching which has been carried out in the past. Primarily, instruction attempted to increase the child's stock of words.

More recently, several researchers (Cronbach, 1942; Feifel and Lorge, 1950; Kruglov, 1953; Russell, 1954; Berwick, 1959) have developed tests which attempt to determine not only that a word is known, but also how the word is known. A sample item from Berwick's test will illustrate this point more clearly. It can be seen that the following test was designed to measure the child's knowledge of words with multiple meaning.

X

Old method - sack: seat, hold, bag, lift, box.

Berwick's method - sack

- (X) a large bag
 - () to hold
 - () a loose coat
 - (X) to discharge
 - () some ashes
 - () to plunder
 - (X) a white wine
 - () to hunt
- (Berwick, 1959, p. 125)

Watts (1944) defines these two approaches to vocabulary when he states:

In studying the growth of vocabulary of English we may proceed in two ways; we may consider it as revealed in the number of words available for spoken or written use, or a development in the range and quality of words themselves (Watts, 1944, p. 31).

This present study attempted to examine the latter approach specified by Watts in 1944 and reiterated by Dale in 1965. What is meant by range and quality of meaning? In order to clarify this statement the following example is cited. Two children may be asked to define the following words: first, lemon; secondly, run. To the second word child A responds, "to run a race, to run a film, to get a home run, to run for president". In response to the same word child B gives "to go quickly, like running a race." These responses illustrate the range in meaning. For child A the symbol "run" denotes several different meanings, whereas the range of meaning for child B is limited to the most common meaning for this particular symbol. In response to the word "lemon", child A states "citrus fruit"; child B gives "you eat it." Although both children could identify the referent by the symbol, their responses illustrate a qualitative difference in the meanings of the words. Thus, meaning is determined by class membership for child A and by function for child B.

Evanechko (1970) examined the current literature on vocabulary development and subsequently identified twenty-four ways of knowing a word.

- e.g. (1) Synonym. big - large
 (3) Superordinate. fruit - apple
 (5) Attribute. lemon - sour

(See p. 55 for a detailed list).

From these categories he developed the Semantic Features Test, designed to investigate the ways in which children attach meaning to words. In consequence of this investigation, and in accordance with Evanechko's suggestions for further research, the present study attempted to design instructional materials and develop a teaching strategy to facilitate the learning of new vocabulary.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to design a series of curriculum units to develop qualitative vocabulary.

To achieve this purpose the following steps were taken:

1. An examination of the literature in the area of vocabulary and concept development to determine the principles for instruction as suggested by Carroll (1964).
2. The provision of systematic activities organized into small, teachable units to facilitate regular inclusion in the school program, the 'when' of instruction referred to by Dolch (1953).
3. The inclusion of many aspects of word meaning in a systematic manner, the 'what' of instruction, suggested by Dale (1968) and delineated by Evanechko (1970).
4. The development of a teaching strategy, the 'how' of instruction, to encourage the learning of new vocabulary irrespective of whether the new symbol is encountered in a planned or incidental experience.

III. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Chapter II constitutes a review of the related literature in vocabulary and concept development.

A review of language texts and instructional materials pertinent to methods of teaching vocabulary is the content of Chapter III.

Chapter IV provides a rationale for the organization of the curriculum units, followed by Chapter V which includes a discussion and an evaluation of the units, a summary, and implications for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

I. INTRODUCTION

In studying the development of vocabulary there are several issues which should be examined. One of the major issues is the problem of meaning. The first part of the chapter will elaborate on this notion. Second, it is necessary to examine the factors which affect the growth of meaning; hence the relationship between concepts and word meaning is discussed. An examination of some of the processes involved in the development of these concepts is the subject of the next part of the chapter. The remainder of the chapter reviews the techniques by which vocabulary is measured and taught. Wherever possible, the writer attempted to illustrate the theoretical position presented in this chapter with practical illustrations taken from the teaching units designed for this study.

II. WORDS AND MEANINGS

Rommetviet (1968) defines a word as follows: "Spoken words are temporal strings of phonemes, written English words are spatial strings of graphemes" (Rommetviet, 1968, p. 97). The manner by which meaning is attached to these word forms is by a process of semantic attribution. It was this process which Evanechko (1970) undertook to examine and upon which the teaching units of this study were based.

The term 'process' implies a processor, an active agent, who constantly provides semantic attributes for these word forms. As each agent differs, the semantic processing of a word also differs; therefore, the meaning of a word is not inherent in the word form but resides in the processor. As Salomon states: "Words don't mean; people mean" (Salomon, 1966, p. 2).

This concept of word meaning is clarified by reference to the diagram presented by Ogden and Richards (See Figure 1).

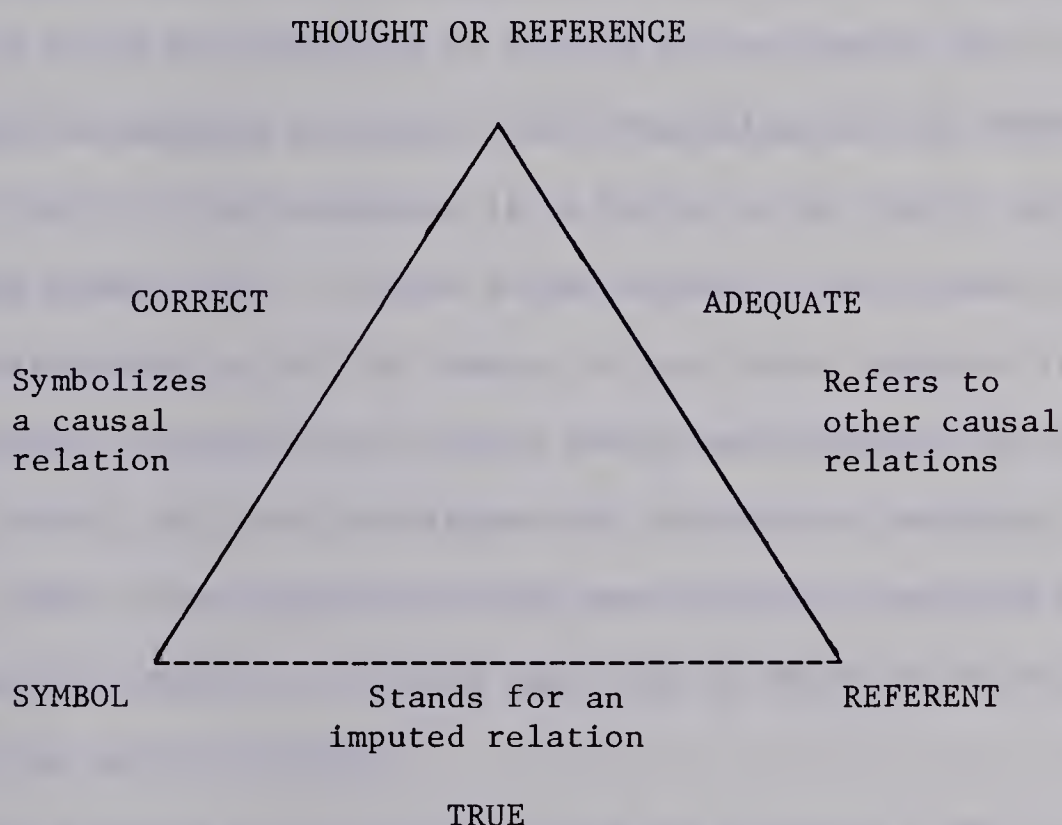


FIG. 1 MODEL OF THE RELATIONS BETWEEN WORDS AND THINGS
(Ogden and Richards, 1956, p. 11)

possible semantic attributes which can be associated with a symbol. As Blank and Solomon (1968) illustrate, children do not simply need more and better words, they need to use words they already have to structure and guide their thinking.

The quantitative approach to learning word meanings results in a superficial knowledge of the meaning of words. If, in addition to this latter approach, a qualitative approach is undertaken, by focusing on the ways in which a person refers to a referent, the semantic process would be more complete. For example, showing a child a picture of a cat and labelling it as such by the symbol 'cat' is not as meaningful as showing a picture, and verbalizing all the ideas that constitute 'cat' (it has whiskers, it is agile, it is a pet), and then applying the symbol 'cat'. In the former approach the process of semantic attribution is left to chance; in the latter approach it is abetted because it promotes not only a better understanding of the meaning of words, but also facilitates the retention of meaning (Stauffer, 1969). The vocabulary units were therefore designed to include specific lessons to develop many ways by which the child can carry out this act of reference.

When a person hears symbols, Ogden and Richards (1956) state that they ". . . both cause us to perform an act of reference and to assume an attitude" (p. 11). Thus, meaning is seen to have two aspects generally referred to as the denotative meaning and the connotative meaning. The denotative meaning corresponds to the physical attributes of the object which would be embedded in the act of

The three factors involved whenever a word is spoken or understood are placed in the corners of the triangle, the relations which hold between them being represented by the sides. Between a thought and a symbol causal relations exist because the symbolism used is caused partly by the reference being made and partly by social and psychological factors. Ogden and Richards further state that when a person hears what is being said, the symbol causes the person to perform an act of reference and to assume an attitude which will be more or less similar to the act and the attitude of the speaker. For example, the symbol 'dog', causes an act of reference (it has four legs, it barks, it is a domesticated animal) which permits us to designate a particular animal as dog. Thus, it can be seen that between the act of reference and the referent, in this case dog, a more or less direct relationship exists.

Between the symbol and the referent there is no direct relationship other than the indirect one which consists in it being used by someone to stand for a referent. Therefore, the symbol and referent are only indirectly connected by means of the two sides of the triangle. An understanding of the manner by which they are indirectly connected is necessary if qualitative meaning in vocabulary is to be taught.

In the past, teachers have often neglected the 'act of reference' corner of the triangle as efforts were directed to relating a quantity of symbols to a quantity of referents. This process is indeed important but not sufficient, as it does not expand the number of

reference; the connotative meaning of a word corresponds to the attitude towards the object.

The denotative meanings of words are similar for different people because these meanings are socially standardized. However, the connotative meaning is similar only to the extent that different people undergo similar experiences with the object (Carroll, 1964). Osgood (1952) developed a semantic scale which measures the differences in connotative meaning. Experiments have also been conducted which demonstrate how the connotative meanings of words can be conditioned (Staats and Staats, 1968). In order to accomplish adequate learning in the teaching of vocabulary both the extensional or denotative meaning, and the intensional or connotative meaning should be emphasized. Therefore, the teaching units included several lessons designed to fulfil this task.

Within this interpretation of the nature of meaning, meanings of words are not seen as static 'things' to be learned by memory but are perceived as dynamic formations which change as a result of experience (Vygotsky, 1962). It follows that the meanings understood by a young child and the meanings understood by a mature adult will not be equivalent as the former is lacking in experience. Vygotsky also states that word meanings as perceived by the child refer to the same object the adult has in mind, which ensures communication, but meaning is known to the child by different mental operations. In terms of the triangle, the symbol and the referent are equivalent for the child and adult, but their acts of reference are incongruent. This

incongruency is determined by the ways in which the individual processes the sensory data; these processes, in turn, are influenced by the existing cognitive structures, that is, the concepts.

III. WORDS, MEANINGS AND CONCEPTS

The relationship between words, meanings and concepts is indeed a complex one. Writers have agreed upon what the relationship does not consist of. Vinacke states, ". . . a verbal response is merely a label for the internal cognitive structure" (Vinacke, 1952, p. 100); Russell (1956) remarks that words are merely the 'signs' and symbols of concepts; Hazlitt (1930) points out that verbal responses can only be an indication of concepts as one cannot equate thinking with verbal expression.

Attempts, however, have been made to define a concept. For example, Carroll (1964) defines concepts as ". . . the classes of experience formed in individuals either independently of language or in close dependence on language processes" (p. 187). These classes of experiences according to Underwood (1952) consist of ". . . the perception of relationships among stimuli" (p. 209).

For the present discussion on the nature of concepts the writer has adopted Vinacke's (1952) view of the characteristics that should be taken into account when describing a concept. Vinacke stresses the importance of direct sensory data but does not equate it with a concept. He agrees with Serra (1953), who regards sensory data as "the raw materials of the concept" from which elaboration,

combination and categorization occur. Hence, concepts always depend upon the previous experiences of the organism and provide a system by which present, past and future experiences become united and integrated. Stauffer (1969) concurs when he says:

Concepts are a unifying and an integrative force that, when acted upon by the child's cognitive skills, provide the intellectual wherewithal for dealing with a wide variety of overt and covert experiences (Stauffer, 1969, p. 375).

Vinacke (1952) further elaborates that this integration is symbolic in nature as the same concept may be invoked by a variety of stimuli. In the human organism this symbolic function is fulfilled by the word and the ability to use words in this generalized manner frees man from attending to each particular attribute of each new instance of a concept (Bruner et al, 1962).

From this view of the characteristics of concepts it can be seen that words, which are a component of language, and concepts which belong in the realm of thought are so intertwined that separate analysis is indeed difficult. However, Vygotsky's (1962) explanation of this relationship proffers some clarification.

In studying this complex relationship Vygotsky avoids the equating and separating of language and thought by adopting a different method of analysis. He chooses analysis into units, the unit he chooses being word meaning. It is in word meaning that thought and speech unite in verbal thought; therefore by studying word meaning the relationship between language and thought can be found.

A word does not refer to a single object but to a group or

class of objects. The qualitative distinction between sensation and thought is the presence in the latter of a generalized reflection of reality which is also the essence of word meaning. Luria illustrates this point clearly when he states:

The word, connected with direct perception of the object, isolates its essential features: to name the perceived object 'a glass' adding its functional role 'for drinking' isolates the essential and inhibits the less essential properties of the object (such as its weight or external shape); to indicate with the word 'glass', any glass, regardless of its shape, makes perception of this object permanent and generalized (Luria, 1959, p. 13).

The inability to use words in this generalized manner is illustrated dramatically in Kastein's book, The Birth of Language, which describes a young child who has some neurological impairment which has impeded her language development. She is unable to use words in the generalized manner as described by Luria. She was not able to make the connection independently between the table she was using and the table in the next room. She did not understand that tables have different uses and that they can have different appearances. She could link two identical spoons, but if there was a variation in color, size or design she was bewildered. This example supports Vygotsky's unit of analysis, word meaning, as it clearly illustrates that word meaning belongs in the realm of language and thought.

Goldstein's (1936) experiments with patients suffering from amnesic aphasia also gives credence to this position. He explains that amnesic aphasia is not caused by a lack of words or ability to call up word images but the cause is due to some change in the basic

behavior of the patients who lose their categorical behavior. As a result, they are reduced to a more concrete level of intellectual functioning. He concludes, therefore, that the seemingly simple task of naming objects does not present a superficial connection between a word and a thing.

Within this framework it can be seen that the meaning of a word represents such an amalgam of thought and language that it is hard to tell whether it is a phenomenon of speech or thought. Hence, it is in word meaning that the relationship between concepts and words can be found. Russell supports this position as he states:

When vocabulary tests develop more as tests of depth, breadth, precision and application, they should come closer to being tests of concepts understood by the child (Russell, 1956, p. 124).

The definition of a concept proffered by Bruner, Goodnow, and Austin also supports this point of view. They state that:

The working definition of a concept is the network of sign-significate inferences that are or may be set into play by an act of categorizing (Bruner, Goodnow and Austin, 1962, p. 244).

However, they have found it more meaningful to regard a concept as,

. . . a network of sign-significate inferences by which one goes beyond a set of observed criterial properties exhibited by an object or event to the class identity of the object or event in question, and then to additional inferences about other unobserved properties of the object or event (Bruner, Goodnow and Austin, 1962, p. 244).

This definition is clarified by the authors' reference to the object, apple. The apple has criterial properties; it is red (a shade of color), shiny (a degree of brightness or dullness), and roundish (shape).

These properties constitute part of the network of sign-significate inferences that leads the observer to conclude that the object is an apple. As an apple, the object has class identity and from this observation certain other attributes may be inferred. For example, it is edible, it rots if left unrefrigerated.

Both the criterial attributes of the object which lead to class identification and the inferred attributes resulting from class identification make up some of the categories of meaning included in the teaching units. Systematic teaching of these categories of meaning should increase the number of inferences that may be set into play, and therefore evoke a more complete and more complex concept of an object or an event.

In conclusion, it can be said that a word represents a label for a variety of categories of meaning, these categories of meaning making up the concept represented by the word. Jarolimek sums up this position when he states:

Concepts may be regarded as categories of meaning. Attaching meaning beyond sensory impression to abstract symbols is what is meant by conceptual thought. If ideas are to be communicated, there must be common agreement on the meaning of the labels or symbols. Words provide convenient labels for concepts. Concepts provide an intellectual filing system for meanings. Concept development calls for the placing of information in correct cognitive categories (Jarolimek, 1966, p. 534).

The units designed for this study endeavored to develop these correct cognitive categories in an effort to develop adequate concepts by focusing on the qualitative meaning of words rather than by merely increasing the child's stock of 'labels'.

IV. CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

The research in concept development has been presented by many writers such as Curti (1950), Langer (1967, 1969), Serra (1953), Russell (1956), Vinacke (1952), and Welch and Long (1940).

From this research it can be seen that concepts exhibit certain characteristic trends. They develop from the simple to the complex; from the concrete to the abstract. This progression is achieved by a process of abstraction and generalization:

Abstraction signifies the linking of one sensory experience to another, during which some details are left out and others become dominant. Generalization signifies that the dominant detail (or group of details) resulting from abstraction is used as a basis for responding similarly to the separate objects linked by abstraction (Vinacke, 1952, p. 104).

This process is also facilitated by the organism's ability to function symbolically.

In the case of man, there is another condition with enormous implications for the elaboration of conceptual functions, namely, language, which makes possible an efficient symbolic system and the well-nigh unlimited communication from one organism to another (Vinacke, 1952, p. 105).

An examination of some of the processes involved in the development of concepts suggests certain implications for instruction in the area of vocabulary development.

Concept development results from an accumulation of experience with some kind of resulting organization. This resulting organization can be manipulated in many complex ways through the use of language.

The concept can be detached from specific instances by means of a word and used to organize experience over and beyond the more simple recognition function (Vinacke, 1952, p. 106).

First, it can be seen that experience is essential for the development of sound concepts. Secondly, it is necessary to pinpoint this experience by means of symbols. "Teachers sometimes assume that the ability to make associations between words and the ideas the words represent does not need to be taught" (Langer, 1969, p. 382). Thirdly, it is important to pinpoint these experiences in as many ways as possible. An example will clarify this point. A child visits a farm and he experiences an object which is labelled 'pig'. What are some of the criterial properties he abstracts from this experience which enable him to label a similar object as 'pig'? These properties might include the following characteristics; it is fat (attribute of pig), it squeals and grunts (action of pig), it has a curly tail (part of pig), and pork is obtained from the pig (common use of pig). The number of attributes attended to by the child depends upon his existing cognitive structure, but this number may be increased if all the characteristics are made salient through language.

One of the basic notions supporting knowing or comprehending is that the attributes of various circumstances or events must be grasped in their relations to one another and/or in categories (Stauffer, 1969, p. 131).

The previous discussion has shown that an accumulation of experience, followed by activities labelling these experiences in as many ways as possible, is necessary for the development of sound concepts. Therefore, these principles were incorporated into the first

teaching unit. This unit focused on those categories of meaning which are directly related to the child's perceptual experience.

Another important operation to be mastered in the development of concepts is the process of classification. This process occurs in Piaget's system during the period of concrete operations. Vygotsky talks of the advance complexes whose function is:

. . . to establish bonds and relationships. Complex thinking begins the unification of scattered impressions, by organizing discrete elements of experience into groups, it creates a basis for later generalization (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 76).

In the beginning, this process takes place in the sphere of the perceptual or in that of practical, action bound thinking. For example, the child first learns to pick out all the yellow counters from a heap, only then does he learn to think of all yellow objects (Piaget, in Berlyne, 1967). Once these classes are formed they can be joined to form more inclusive classes and a complex, hierarchical system takes shape (Welch and Long, 1940).

Vygotsky (1962) contends that a concept can become subject to conscious and deliberate control only when it is part of such a system. He further elaborates that if consciousness means generalization, generalization presupposes the formation of a super-ordinate concept which includes the concept as a particular case.

A super-ordinate concept implies the existence of a series of subordinate concepts, and it also presupposes a hierarchy of concepts of different levels of generality. Thus, the given concept is placed within a system of relationships of generality (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 92).

To clarify this statement Vygotsky makes reference to the child's use

of the words 'rose' and 'flower'. In the beginning the child uses these two terms interchangeably, hence the concept 'flower', although more widely applicable than 'rose' cannot be said to be more general for the child. 'Flower' becomes more generalized only when it includes and subordinates the concept 'rose'. In this manner a hierarchical system takes shape. This hierarchical system described by Vygotsky can be compared in some ways to the abstraction ladder discussed by Hayakawa (Hayakawa in Braddock, 1962, p. 244). Using Vygotsky's example of 'flower' and 'rose' with the abstraction ladder illustrated on the following page, it can be seen that when a child uses these terms interchangeably he is placing these terms on the same rung of the ladder as they are at the same level of abstraction. Hayakawa states:

When we stay at the same level of abstraction in giving a definition, we do not give any information, unless of course, the listener or reader is already sufficiently familiar with defining words so that he can work himself down the abstraction ladder (Hayakawa in Braddock, 1962, p. 246).

This "dead level" abstracting results in poor communication. Hayakawa explains that if a poor speaker remains at the higher level of abstraction the communication is vague and often meaningless unless his message is illustrated with specific examples from a lower level of abstraction. An example from the writer's teaching experience clarifies this point. A new student transferred into class in the middle of the year. This particular child related one of his sentences in his exercise book which read "Mexico is a democratic country." When asked "What is a democratic country?", he replied, "Mexico." Obviously the child was

Start reading from the bottom UP

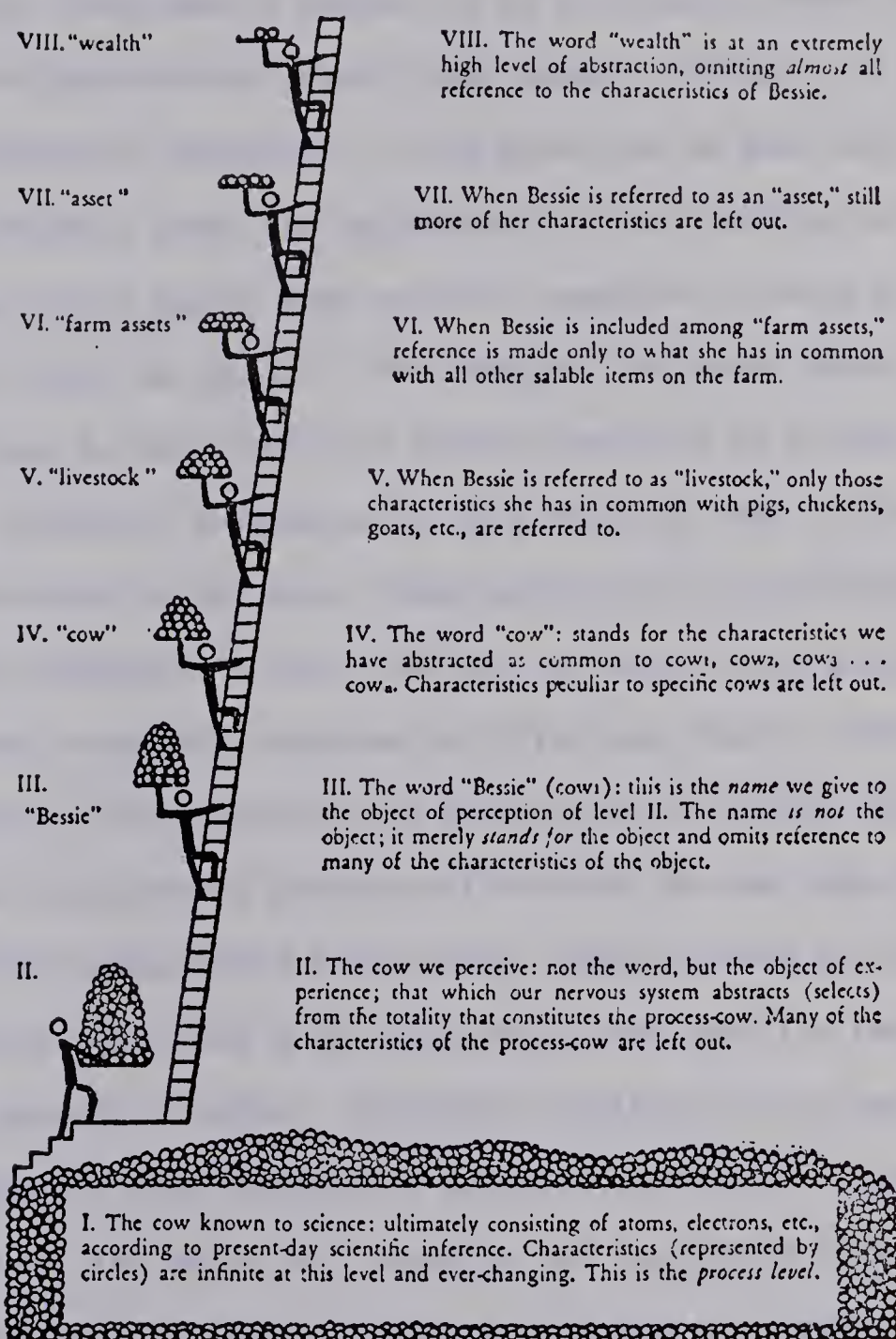


Fig. 2. ABSTRACTION LADDER* (Hayakawa in Braddock, 1962, p. 244).

*The "abstraction ladder" is based on "The Structural Differential," a diagram originated by A. Korzybski to explain the process of abstracting.

merely verbalizing. What does a teacher do in a situation where very abstract terms are appropriate? Avoid these terms? Avoidance is preferred to memorization of verbalisms. Such words can be made more meaningful if Hayakawa's ideas are implemented in the teaching situation. The teacher might supply some specific examples to which the term "democratic" could be applied. For example, she might select class monitors first by the autocratic process and then by a democratic process. Through a discussion of this activity some of the salient characteristics of the word "democracy" would be highlighted (there is a choice, there is a vote, the vote is secret) and applied to situations other than the classroom, in this case, Mexico. This continuous transition from one level of abstraction to another serves to strengthen the hierarchical patterns of concepts because some words are shown to be more generalized than others. This process also adds depth to concepts if each time down the ladder a new specific instance of a particular concept is added. Continuous addition of new specific instances also permits more flexibility in thinking because it provides a greater choice for the selection, grouping and regrouping of ideas.

It is this lack of flexibility in moving from one level of abstraction to another that is often lacking in children's writing. In younger children the tendency is to operate at the lower end of the abstraction scale; they are confined to the specifics. It is the teacher's function to help these students to use more abstract terms in a meaningful way so that more complex thinking can occur and clarity in writing can be achieved. In order not to commit the crime of 'dead

level abstracting' an example is provided to show how teachers can help students use abstract words to organize their writing.

Thirty grade four pupils were asked to write a description of a moccasin. An example of one of the more verbal students is given below:

Shoe. You wear it. It is warm and has fur on it. The fur is brown. There are flowers on it. It is a big one. The flowers are beads. The beads are coloured. The shoe is brown. The beads look like flowers. They are pink. Indians make them from hide. The fur is soft, the leather is rough and brown.

Is this a good piece of descriptive writing? It depends. It depends on the level of maturity of the student (McFetridge, 1971). However, the teacher must nurture his language growth. In this specific instance, the teacher must develop the student's ability to write better descriptions. Hayakawa offers some direction when he states:

The low level speaker frustrates you because he leaves you with no direction as to what to do with the basketful of information (Hayakawa in Braddock, 1962, p. 259).

Similarly, this young writer has a basketful of information, but this information lacks organization. Words of a higher level of generality are powerful organizers both for the reception and expression of ideas. The ideas suggested in the student's description might be organized by such words as function, description of parts according to shape, size, texture, and color. Such words act as anchor for the numerous specific observations. For example, 'color', may be the topic of one paragraph. In the description the ideas related to color

are: The fur is brown. The beads are colored. The shoe is brown. They (flowers) are pink and green. The leather is brown.

These ideas are interspersed throughout the description. Using 'color' in a topic sentence the child can be helped to organize his sentences more economically to read: The moccasin has several colors. The leather is dark brown. The fur is light brown. The beaded flowers are pink and green. The use of such words as size, color, function, aids the writer to organize his ideas more effectively for clarity of expression; it also aids the reader to focus his ideas to comprehend the message.

Similarly, writers may have to be shown how to move down the abstraction ladder when the situation deems it appropriate. The statement "Jack ate all the food" might be an appropriate answer to the question "Who ate the food?" The purpose of communication in this instance is for information. The statement "Jack gobbled down the hamburgers, weiners, jelly and ice cream" is more appropriate in creative writing where the primary purpose of communication is not for information but to create an effect.

A good writer, then, is one who knows how and when to move up and down the abstraction ladder.

The interesting writer, the informative speaker, the accurate thinker, and the well-adjusted individual, operate on all levels of the abstraction ladder moving quickly and gracefully and in orderly fashion from higher to lower, from lower to higher - with minds as lithe and deft and beautiful as monkeys in a tree (Hayakawa in Braddock, 1962, p. 253).

The lessons in one unit attempted to clarify and strengthen the hierarchical system discussed by Vygotsky and Hayakawa. Exercises

were based on improving the ability to classify and explain the basis for classification. Exercises were given to improve the understanding of general abstract terms. Further exercises attempted to improve the ability to use abstract and concrete words appropriately.

Whenever conditions permit, or whenever they can be contrived, children should be allowed to group and regroup, to structure and restructure information and to classify it. In this activity, the judgements required to rearrange the different concepts will facilitate recall and use in new situations (Stauffer, 1969, p. 131).

In order to ensure adequate learning of concepts, attention should be given to the understanding of connotative meaning. Vinacke contends that,

. . . it is important to emphasize the fact that both extensional and intentional data are involved in concepts and that a particular concept system can only be defined adequately when both aspects are taken into account (Vinacke, 1952, p. 102).

Hence, one unit was designed to develop this connotative aspect of word meaning.

Throughout his account of concept development, Vygotsky emphasizes the central role the word plays to direct the appropriate mental operations. In the English language one word may stand for several concepts; conversely, different words may represent the same concept. In the former case, in order to select the appropriate concept the word has to be viewed in relationship to the context. Therefore, one of the units was designed to illustrate the influence of context upon the meaning of certain words. In the latter case, it is beneficial to have a large stock of words in order to be able to recall a concept which is known by several labels. A unit was devoted to developing a

large stock of words by giving examples of concepts which can be labelled by a variety of symbols. It should be noted that this unit does not further the development of concepts as no new meanings are taught. Known meanings are given new labels.

The process of discrimination is one that is constantly employed in concept development. Each time a new experience of a certain concept occurs, a decision must be reached whether to include or eliminate it. This process is outlined below.

1. There is an array of instances to be tested and from this testing is to come the attainment of the concept. The instances can be characterized in terms of their attributes, e.g., color
2. With each instance, or at least most of them, once the task is underway, a person makes a tentative prediction or decision....
3. Any given decision will be found to be correct, incorrect, or varyingly indeterminate; . . . we refer to this as validation of a decision....
4. Each decision-and-test may be regarded as providing potential information by limiting the number of attributes and attribute values that can be considered....
5. The sequence of decisions made by the person en route to attaining the concept, i.e., en route to the discovery of more or less valid cues, may be regarded as a strategy embodying certain objectives....
6. Any decision about the nature of an instance may be regarded as having consequences for the decision-maker.... (Bruner, Goodnow, and Austin, 1956, pp. 233-234).

When teaching a new concept, if only positive instances of that concept are provided, then the decision reached will always be

found to be correct. This decision will not provide as much potential information as it would not sufficiently limit the number of attributes and attribute values that can be considered. Therefore, when teaching a new concept, some examples which are included in the concept and other examples which are not included must be presented to ensure adequate learning (Carroll, 1964). Furthermore, when an object or an event is included in the wrong concept, the error must be corrected by pointing out the criterial attributes and discrediting the non-criterial attributes. Oral discussion is one means by which this is achieved. "Verbal intercourse thus becomes a powerful factor in the development of a child's concepts." (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 69). Vygotsky's statement emphasizes the crucial role of language for concept development. The symbolic representation is an efficient way of organizing experience. The child first learns the meaning of these symbols in concrete situations and gradually this learning occurs more and more in a verbal context (Werner and Kaplan, 1950). The child uses one concept to learn another. He does this through language by answering and asking questions to verify his experiences (Vinacke, 1952). Hence, throughout the units, oral discussion was emphasized in order that the children could test their tentative notions of the meanings of words.

V. MEASUREMENT OF VOCABULARY

During the last few years, several tests have been developed to measure vocabulary. Earlier tests were designed to measure quantity of vocabulary; more recent tests have attempted to measure quality of

meaning.

The techniques employed to estimate size of vocabulary are the dictionary sampling method and the frequency sampling method. The first approach is fraught with many methodological problems. For example, the criteria by which the selection of words is taken from the dictionary affects the estimation of the size of vocabulary (Lorge and Chall, 1963). The second method derives the words to be tested from sampling lists of words arranged according to frequency of use. Such lists include, the Thorndike Frequency Count, the Rinsland, and the Buckingham and Dolch lists. Each of these lists has unique inherent problems, but a more general criticism is that these lists, although the best source for frequency of words, are not devices for ranking words in order of conceptual difficulty (Wesman and Seashore, 1949).

A major problem related to all vocabulary tests is difficulty of measuring the meaning of a word. What does it mean 'to know the meaning of a word'? Kelley (1943) appraised all the usual techniques employed for vocabulary testing. The list is outlined below.

1. Unaided recall (group or individual)

- a. Checking for familiarity
- b. Using words in a sentence
- c. Explaining meaning and defining
- d. Giving a synonym
- e. Giving an opposite

2. Aided recall

- a. Recall aided by recognition
 1. Matching test
 2. Classification tests
 3. Multiple choice test

- a. Choosing the opposite
 - b. Choosing the best synonym
 - c. Choosing the best definition
 - d. Choosing the best use in sentences
- 4. Same - opposite test
 - 5. Same - opposite - neither test
 - 6. Same - different test
- b. Recall aided by association
 - 1. Completion test
 - 2. Analogy test
 - c. Recall aided by recognition and association
 - 1. Multiple-choice completion test
 - 2. Multiple-choice substitution test

(Kelley, 1932, p.102).

He evaluated each procedure and came to the conclusion that there does not seem to be any one best technique for determining the extent or the quality of the vocabulary of the individual. According to Kelley, the technique employed would be conditioned by the type of vocabulary that is being measured. For example, the method of checking a word in a recognition type of test is much easier than using the word in a sentence or giving the definition. Kelley also points out that the first technique would probably indicate a larger vocabulary than the second, as a person's recognition vocabulary is greater than his recall vocabulary. Seashore and Eckerson (1940) would disagree with this statement. In one of their experiments some students were asked to complete a recognition type of test. They were also instructed to mark each word they recognized as having been used in writing, speaking or both. It was found that these marked words, their use

vocabulary, constituted a high proportion of their recognition vocabulary. Seashore and Eckerson (1940) also quote Annen's (1933) study to support their position. He found that students could make approximately the same score whether they were asked to define the words in their own terms, to use them in sentences or simply to check off the meaning. Lovell (1941) is also of the opinion that intensity or richness of vocabulary is closely related to extensity or knowledge of single meanings, and that one can be estimated from the other.

Contrary to this all-or-none approach, Dolch (1953) suggests that more tests should be developed to show the growth of meaning in children. These tests, he states, should tell us not merely that a child "knows something about" a certain word, but also how much he knows. On examination of several tests he found that only minimum meaning was being tested. Only the most common definition of a word was asked for, leaving out homonyms, multiple meanings, derived and figurative meanings.

Cronbach (1942) attempted to measure more than the common meaning of a word by devising a test which measured precision of meaning. A sample item is shown below.

Example: Continent

- () Africa
- () North America
- () Europe
- () Europe and Asia combined
- () Greenland
- () U.S.A.

(Cronbach, 1942, p.531).

Even though this test yields more information it is still limited. One cannot check conjunctions, structure words, abstract nouns and difficult words. The test is valueless unless the testee can judge which meaning applies in context; even if he completes all the items correctly this cannot be interpreted that he has a perfect concept of the word.

Berwick (1959) also devised a vocabulary test to examine the knowledge of words with multiple meanings. A sample item from this test was given in the introduction in Chapter I. In this test the testee checks all those definitions which apply to the given word. Using this method many meanings for a word can be given in almost the same time it takes to show one.

Russell (1954) has also illustrated the need for more specific vocabulary tests. He administered both general and specific types of tests to pupils through Grades IV to XII. Examining the intercorrelations between these tests and the fluctuations in children's vocabulary scores, he concluded that children's vocabularies are not adequately tested by a general vocabulary test containing items from many subject areas and requiring only a superficial recognition of the closest synonym.

Russell attempted to devise tests which would be diagnostic of (a) breadth and depth of meaning, (b) the child's knowledge of words in other areas. In his study Russell does not clearly define what he means by depth and breadth of meaning. The latter is made clearer by looking at his test items; the former is still obscure. It is not

surprising that the tests for measuring depth of meaning showed no positive results. However, Russell's study has influenced vocabulary research away from the quantitative approach towards a more qualitative one.

The differences in conceptual thinking as mirrored in the use of language have been the concern of more recent researchers who have developed vocabulary tests based on the assumption that concepts develop from the concrete to the abstract. They have tried to devise tests which reveal these qualitative differences in a child's thinking.

Gerstein (1949) constructed a multiple choice test using three sequential levels of concept development: concrete, functional and abstract. It was hypothesized that a child operating on a certain level would choose a response corresponding to that level. There was a definite trend in this direction. Chase (1961) employed these techniques to test pupil's concepts associated with verbal symbols in arithmetic. The pupils were given a vocabulary test and divided into three groups depending on their responses: concrete, function and abstract. They were then given an arithmetic test as a criterion. It was found that children high on the arithmetic test were in the 'abstract' group of the vocabulary test, the medium group in arithmetic tended to be operating at the functional level, and the low level group in arithmetic corresponded to the concrete group on the vocabulary test.

More recently Feifel and Lorge (1950), in their analysis of vocabulary, demonstrated that there are developmental differences in

children's responses. A fivefold qualitative classification system was set up for each definition of every word on the Stanford-Binet vocabulary test. These classes of responses were labelled (1) Synonym, (2) Use Description, and Use and Description, (3) Explanation, (4) Demonstration, Repetition, Illustration and Inferior Explanation, (5) Error. Feifel and Lorge (1950) found that younger children tend to choose responses from (2) and (4), whereas older children chose a synonym type of response. This finding indicates that young children perceive words as concrete ideas and emphasize their isolated or particular aspects, whereas older children stress the class features of the word meaning.

Burns (1960) supports this finding although his classification system was different. He classified responses into three categories. The most rudimentary definition was that expressed by emotional tone, for example, hot, meaning a generalized feeling of discomfort. The second type of definition was that which associates meaning with a specific situation; the third type was of a generic nature stressing class features.

Kruglov (1955) also attempted to show qualitative differences in children's responses, but simplified the procedure used by Feifel and Lorge (1950). She suggests a recognition type of test where all the answers are present. There are many advantages to this technique. First, a person's recognition vocabulary exceeds his recall vocabulary, hence the child is given maximum opportunity to reveal his knowledge of word meaning. Second, a child may recognize a definition at a more

mature level and choose it as the best definition, even though he does not define it at that level. Third, this method facilitates scoring.

Kruglov's findings support those of Feifel and Lorge (1950), but she also noted that even though a definition of a higher conceptual level is presented to the young child, he tends to choose the response characteristic of his own conceptual level. Russell and Saadeh (1962) had similar results to Kruglov although they employed different categories: Concrete, Functional, Abstract, and Incorrect.

These latter investigations formed the basis upon which Evan-echko's (1970) Semantic Features Test was designed. The type of response elicited from the individuals in the studies previously cited provided the source for the twenty-four categories making up the SF Test, and the source from which the teaching units, included in this present study, were devised.

VI. METHODS OF TEACHING VOCABULARY

At present two major methods are employed to develop vocabulary, the direct and context methods. The following paragraphs offer a brief overview of the nature of these two methods as outlined by Petty, Herold, and Stoll (1968).

Direct Methods

(1) Word List. This procedure is the oldest of methods and perhaps the least effective as it is not based upon the child's experiences. This technique is based on the assumption that students

will find the definitions of the words meaningful. The efficacy of this method could be improved if the teacher discussed the meanings with the child and related them to words and concepts already known. Fitzgerald (1963) suggests that teaching words from frequency lists which comprise a basic communication vocabulary would help to develop vocabulary in writing and reading.

(2) Word Parts. This method includes the analysis of roots, prefixes, and suffixes to unlock new meaning. Brown (1959) recommends this method, but Deighton (1959) points out that only prefixes and suffixes with one meaning should be taught otherwise it causes confusion.

(3) Other Direct Methods. These methods include: vocabulary notebooks; systematic study of word origins; study of synonyms, antonyms and homonyms; word and language games; workbooks containing exercises, such as matching a word with its definition; programmed and audio-visual materials.

Programmed instruction should be used with reservation. Johnston (1964) compared this method with the conventional method of teaching. When he controlled for scores on the final examination and compared the groups on their delayed posttest scores, he found that the difference, although not significant, was in favor of the conventional method.

The previous methods would only prove valuable if the words chosen for study were related to the child's experience, otherwise these methods would merely perpetuate empty verbalizations. Secondly, there are several limitations to some of these methods. The study of

synonyms is only valuable if the difference between the word and the synonym is made explicit. Dolch (1953) notes that teachers can expand vocabulary without expanding meaning. If a child is taught 'bow' as a synonym of 'a front part of a boat' the teacher has only provided a new symbol for an old meaning.

Context Methods

(1) Context Clues. This method aims at teaching children how to use clues which help to reveal the meanings of new words. Context reveals meanings in the following ways: by definition, example, modifiers, restatement, and inference. This method also has its limitations. Deighton (1959) states that it reveals unfamiliar words only infrequently, and then only one meaning. It seldom clarifies the whole meaning.

(2) Incidental Learning. This procedure consists of 'wide' reading and 'wide' listening. This method suggests that vocabulary will develop without specific teacher attention. Cohen (1968) recommends this method. He maintains that children learn words best in the context of emotional and intellectual meaning. Ireland (1966) combines this method with a more direct method. Students write down unknown words they read in their stories; define them, write the words in context, write the dictionary pronunciation, and then use the words in a sentence. This method could create a poor attitude towards reading if a child finds many words he does not understand.

Other variations of the 'incidental' method include discussions by teachers and students of the connotative and denotative meanings of

words, idioms, multiple meanings, and word origins, in the context of the classroom situation.

VII. SUMMARY

This chapter constitutes a review of the literature in the area of vocabulary and concept development. The problem of meaning was explored, followed by a discussion of the relationship between meanings, words and concepts. Some of the processes involved in concept development were also examined. The latter part of the chapter investigated methods of measuring and teaching vocabulary. As a result of this review, certain principles pertaining to the content and methodology of the vocabulary units were noted.

CHAPTER III

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: A RATIONALE AND AN EVALUATION

I. INTRODUCTION

The first part of this chapter outlines certain principles to be used in developing instructional materials for vocabulary teaching. The second part of the chapter is devoted to an evaluation of resource materials currently available to teachers. These materials include five different series of language texts designed for elementary pupils. These materials were evaluated in terms of the principles determined in the earlier part of the chapter. The chapter is concluded with a discussion of the findings of this evaluation.

II. PRINCIPLES OF INSTRUCTION

In planning any unit of work, a teacher must decide upon what he wishes to teach. Vocabulary teaching, then, first must be concerned with the problem of deciding precisely what is to be taught. In this present study, the 'what' of instruction connotes the various aspects of word meaning referred to by Dale (1968) in Chapter I. In examining the literature related to the development of vocabulary and concepts in Chapter II, it was illustrated that meaning could be attached to a symbol in the following ways:

(1) Stating the criterial properties of an object. These attributes were demonstrated by using such categories of meaning as: use, (horse -

for riding), quality of, (horse - brown, agile), action of, (horse - gallops), whole-part, (horse - tail, four legs, mane).

(2) Stating the class to which the object belongs (horse-animal).

(3) Explaining the connotative meaning which corresponds to the attitude towards the object which the word represents (horse - fun, fear).

(4) Using the word in context to demonstrate its many meanings (horse, sea-horse, clothes horse, horse around, horse-play, charley-horse, box-horse).

(5) Using other words similar in meaning (horse - colt, mare, filly, gelding).

In the present study this range of meaning, illustrated by the example, horse, constitutes the 'what' of instruction.

Having established the content of the units, the next concern was the sequencing of this content. The organization of content into small teachable units was noted by Dolch (1953) in Chapter I with respect to the 'when' of instruction. From a review of the literature in the previous chapter, it was seen that concepts develop from the simple to the complex. Pupils must be cognizant of the various criterial attributes of an object before they can classify them. This fact implies a certain sequence; meaning expressed through stating class membership should follow the teaching of meaning which represents the criterial properties of an object. However, this does not imply that the range of meaning, representing the criterial properties of an object, be taught only in the primary grades. Hayakawa (in Braddock, 1962) points out that a good writer is one who knows how and when to move up and down the abstraction ladder. In order to know when and how the student

should have continuous practice, therefore, the teaching of the range of meaning demonstrated by describing the physical characteristics of an object seems desirable at various grade levels. With respect to the remaining categories of meaning, there is little indication in the literature suggesting at what age, or in which order, they should be presented. Since the purpose of the units was to develop a qualitative vocabulary to be used both in written and oral communication, as opposed to an understanding vocabulary, the range of meaning was organized according to the manner in which it could be used in writing and speaking. Petty et al (1968) state:

Rather typically, vocabulary teaching has meant attempting to have students learn new words and new meanings through responding to types of generally formal exercises, with, frequently, not enough attention having been given to the reason or need for the teaching (Petty, Herold and Stoll, 1968, p. 7).

By organizing the content of the vocabulary units according to use, it was hoped that the weakness noted by the aforementioned writers might be avoided. A more detailed description of the organization of the units is offered in the following chapter, but a brief overview of the total organization of the units is described to illustrate how this organization facilitates the application of the newly acquired knowledge.

The objective of each unit was clearly stated and exercises were provided to develop this objective, but most important of all, this new knowledge was extended into written and oral situations. In Unit One each lesson focused on one way of describing an object. The culminating activity was to describe an object, or a scene, utilizing all

the possible categories of meaning developed throughout the unit. Unit Two, which focused on context, gave formal exercises to show that context changes meaning. These exercises were followed by many enrichment activities which required the pupil to apply his knowledge. Unit Three emphasized the emotive aspect of language as defined by Copi (in Anderson and Stageberg, 1962). Consequently, connotative meaning was stressed. Classification exercises were provided in the fifth unit, followed by activities which required the student to judge the appropriateness of general class words and specific words in relation to the purpose of the writing. Activities involved making general statements more specific to achieve a particular effect. For example, the statement "The old house had many things that scared me" required the student to give specific examples of the "many things" that caused the fear (Unit Five; p.137). Other activities involved reducing statements with many specific examples to a general statement. For example, "Apples, pears, plums, cherries - half price. Lettuce, radishes, potatoes, carrots - half price. Beef, pork, lamb, veal - half price" could be reduced to "Half price sale on all fresh foods" (Unit Five, p.134). The exercises in Unit Four corresponded to the more formal type of activities outlined previously by Petty et al (1968). This unit increased vocabulary and attempted to develop precision, but as Watts (1947) suggests, it is not the enlargement of vocabulary itself that is of value, but the enlargement of the mind for new ideas. Therefore, within this interpretation the writer considered this unit the least effective in developing a qualitative vocabulary.

In conclusion, it appears that the 'when' of instruction depends upon the specific kind of vocabulary the pupil requires to improve a particular type of communication. Therefore, the units need not be taught in numerical order, but could be taught in relation to the different kinds of writing being developed in the language arts program. However, within the units, the concepts are presented sequentially, from simple to complex, to develop the general aim of the unit, with the exception of Unit Four. Also, the units are broken into small, teachable elements to facilitate regular inclusion in the school program.

After establishing the content and organization of the units, the next concern was the methodology or the 'how' of instruction. In reporting the various methods of teaching vocabulary, as outlined in Chapter II, by Petty, Herold and Stoll (1968), some discrepancies were detected between their notion of method and the one presented in this study. For example, the 'incidental method' (Chapter II, p. 37) included the discussion of connotative and denotative meanings of words, idioms, multiple meanings and word origins. In the present study this "method" constitutes part of the range of meaning of vocabulary, as the method used in this study refers to the technique by which this range of meaning is implemented. There are basically two types of teaching methods used in the language arts; first, the inductive method, second, the deductive method.

In recent years much attention has been given to the comparison of the learning of general principles by the inductive method and the deductive method. The first method involves presenting

an individual with an appropriate series of positive and negative instances of a concept, and allowing him to infer the concept from these experiences. The deductive method includes, first, a verbal definition or explanation of a concept, followed by examples of positive and negative instances of the particular concept being developed.

The deductive method is usually favored in school because it is not as slow and inefficient as the inductive method (Carroll, 1964). However, Kersch's (1958) experiment demonstrated that students who had been taught by the inductive method retained more than those taught by the deductive method. Hence, a combination of methods was used. Primarily, the inductive method was chosen to develop the concept. However, it should also be noted that:

"In practice considerable help may be given from the teacher and still the learner may be said to have learned by discovery, but in such instances the process is usually qualified and called guided discovery" (Kersch and Witrock, 1962, p. 465)

In addition to these two approaches the deductive method was also employed in the application of the concept.

This "guided discovery" approach was later used by Armstrong (1968) in devising a series of units to develop certain language skills. From the writer's past experience of using Armstrong's (1968) units, this approach seemed effective for language learning. Consequently, this approach was adopted in the present study.

The success of this approach depends upon the guidance which is provided for the students. In the present units, the source of this guidance was furnished by the teacher's questions. Examples of guiding questions were suggested in each lesson. "Pointed teacher

questions may cause the pupils to note differences, to make comparisons and to catch the little details that would escape a more casual observer" (Stauffer, 1969, p. 135).

Throughout the units emphasis was placed not on the 'correct' response, but the reasoning that resulted in the response. It was hoped that the students ". . . may acquire a disposition to search for relationships and patterns among ideas and facts . . ." (Taba and Elzy in De Cecco, 1967, p. 405), rather than look for single correct answers. The writer also suggested that the explanation of this reasoning should be presented through discussion in order that the teacher could help children become aware of any faulty reasoning. Through discussion the whole class could then either confirm their tentative notions, or revise their erroneous notions about the semantics of the words presented.

This validation procedure is only one advantage to be gained from stressing the importance of oral language in the language learning process. Loban's (1963) longitudinal study showed that children who rated superior and above average in oral language were also above average in written application. Ruddell's (1966) article also shows that the levels achieved in all language arts are highly dependent upon the quality of oral language which has been attained. Armstrong (1968) supports Ruddell when he talks of language as the essence of readiness for reading. Liublinskaya (in Rommetviet, 1968) showed that when children verbalized the differentiating feature in a discrimination task their learning rate and retention span increased considerably.

Wilkinson (1969) speaks of "oracy as a condition of learning". These studies represent a small proportion of research which show the importance of oral language and which support the writer's emphasis upon class discussion.

These discussions were usually followed by some written activity involving the words presented orally. Many researchers have cited the discrepancy between a child's spoken and written vocabulary (Smith, 1942; Dale, 1953; Hulbert, 1954), and it has been demonstrated that this discrepancy can be lessened by encouraging children to apply their oral vocabulary knowledge in their written work (Pooley, 1946; Serra, 1953; Langer, 1968).

For the learning of the vocabulary presented in these units, the instructional procedures of the lessons provided for the inductive development of the concept, guided by the teacher's questions, but formulated by the pupils. This procedure was followed by oral discussion and written application.

In summary, the following principles seem desirable as a basis for creating instructional materials to develop a qualitative vocabulary:

- (1) The materials should contain a wide range of meaning.
- (2) The materials should be organized to facilitate the transfer of knowledge from one situation to another. The knowledge derived from the more formal type of exercises should be extended into practical, oral and written situations so that students see the need and the reason for such teaching.

(3) The materials should be implemented by using primarily the inductive method of teaching.

In conclusion, it was also thought that this total program would develop an effective strategy for learning the meaning of new words, irrespective of whether these words were encountered in a planned or incidental experience. The units expand the number of semantic attributes which can be associated with a particular symbol and they also illustrate how these attributes can be used to guide and structure language for a variety of oral and written situations.

III. AN EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The following pages constitute an examination and discussion of some of the aspects of vocabulary developed in the various language texts currently available. The following texts were chosen for examination:

1. Language Comes Alive (Dent and Sons, Toronto)
2. Language Journeys (Macmillan Company, Toronto)
3. Elementary School English (Addison-Wesley Publishing Company)
4. Our Language Today (American Book Company, New York)
5. Language and How To Use It (Scott, Foresman and Company, Illinois)

The first two series in the above list were chosen because the particular texts have been used extensively, and are still being used, in some schools in Alberta. A comparison of these texts with the remaining series on the list also serves to illustrate the increased emphasis upon vocabulary development in recent years. Each series

was examined according to the principles outlined in the earlier part of this chapter with respect to the following dimensions: (a) range of meaning, (b) organization of learning experiences, (c) method used to implement these learning experiences.

Series: Language Comes Alive

Range of Meaning: Limited to the teaching of antonyms and synonyms.

Organization: This series is organized in units around one theme. Each unit adopts a different theme and contains several exercises on some of the following aspects of language: punctuation, usage, capitalization and vocabulary. Exercises developing an understanding of antonyms and synonyms are included in some of these units in each book at every grade level.

Methodology: The deductive method of teaching is used throughout the texts; most of the exercises merely require the pupils to fill in the blank space with a word from a given list. An example illustrates this method.

What synonyms might be used for these words?

skate smoothly - gl..., sl...,

(Language Comes Alive, Four, p. 126).

Series: Language Journeys

Range of Meaning: Limited to the teaching of antonyms and synonyms.

Organization: Similar to the organization of the previous series.

Methodology: A deductive method of teaching is employed. The exercises presented stultify thinking and creativity. In the following example the pupil is required to underline the best answer.

The (little, wee, interesting, tiny) insect (flew, moved,

hovered) over the flowers. (Language Journeys, Five, p. 135).

Series: Our Language To-day

Range of Meaning: The following categories are included in the range of meaning: action of, antonyms, synonyms, generic, definitions, connotation, quality of, and context. Idiomatic and figurative language is also discussed. Other topics which do not actually increase the range of meaning, although they develop an interest in words, include the history of words, signs and meaning, change in meaning, and work with a thesaurus.

Organization: Naming attributes of objects in order to classify is dealt with in book Two. This knowledge is not utilized again until book Five where the student is required to change sentences to show more precise meaning. For example, the pupil is required to change the sentence 'A large animal was hiding in the woods' to 'A large tiger was hiding in the woods' (Our Language To-day, Book Five, p. 272). A vocabulary of the senses is discussed in book Two and further developed in book Six. Exercises developing antonyms and

synonyms are included at every level. Connotative, contextual meaning and figurative language are introduced in books Four and Five. The history of words is included at each grade level.

Methodology: The method used to teach vocabulary is primarily deductive. Many of the exercises begin with such directives as "Notice", "Tell", "Identify", "Recognize" and "choose from the box." Furthermore, the knowledge derived from the completion of such exercises is not extended into meaningful writing activities.

Series: Elementary School English

Range of Meaning: In teaching classification meaning is developed by naming parts, function, action upon, and action of various objects. Meaning developed through context and synonyms is also presented. Activities centred around building a vocabulary of the senses utilize the category of quality of (e.g., sugar-sweet) and action of (bell-tinkles). Other activities related to vocabulary are signs and meaning, how meaning is attached to symbols, dictionary activities, word origins and pitch, stress, intonation and meaning.

Organization: Classification is dealt with in depth in book Two only. A vocabulary of the senses is presented in books Three, Four, and Five. Context is developed in books Four and Six. Although the range of meaning is more limited in this series than the previous one, more exercises and activities are provided to develop more depth of understanding of the various aspects of vocabulary.

Methodology: Both the inductive and deductive approaches are used. An excellent example of the inductive method is given in book Two. The pupil is required to verbalize the salient attributes of numerous objects presented pictorially. The established categories are then employed to describe and classify other objects represented both pictorially and verbally. This knowledge is not extended beyond this level as there are no further exercises to demonstrate how these categories can be used to improve descriptive writing. However, many exercises related to sense words are given and suitable writing activities suggested.

Series: Language and How to Use It

Range of Meaning: Meaning shown through class membership, synonyms, antonyms, context and connotation constitute the range of meaning in this series. Other topics related to vocabulary include history of words, figurative language and work with a thesaurus.

Organization: Classification is dealt with in the first two books only. Exercises on antonyms and synonyms are included at all levels, while the development of contextual meaning is confined to books Three and Six, and connotative meaning to books Five and Six. There is a heavy emphasis on figurative language and the history of words from books Three to Six.

Methodology: Such instructions as "The blanks in the sentences on these pages can be filled by some form of the words below" (book Six, p. 124) and "Choose from the list and match" (book Four, p. 56) are illustrations of the teaching method used in this series.

IV. DISCUSSION

The examination of the language texts illuminates several points related to the various dimensions.

Range of meaning. By comparing the first two series on the list with the remaining three, it can be seen that the range of meaning has indeed broadened. If a teacher has access to all series for each grade level she can utilize many of the categories of meaning. However, this is not usually possible and if one looks at one grade level from one series the range is somewhat limited. The last series, Language and How To Use It, provides a fairly broad range of meaning across grades, but book Four includes only exercises on antonyms, synonyms and figurative language. Therefore, it would seem that an instructional package which developed a more complete range of meaning would be desirable.

Organization. The learning experiences in these series are organized into small teachable elements but they are not particularly systematic. The particular inclusion of one aspect of meaning over another, or the learning of one aspect of meaning before another is dependent upon the author's preference. Exercises dealing with classification, antonyms and synonyms are some examples of the categories of meaning which are exceptions to this statement. To some extent the organization of the learning experiences in vocabulary is dictated by the larger framework of the language text. A text which places heavy emphasis on creative language contains more exercises related to

connotation and figurative language than one that stresses functional writing. As these texts are written to develop all aspects of language some choice has to be made regarding the content and sequencing, but such choices result in isolated learning and hinder the development of a strategy for learning word meanings. A simple example will illustrate the use of such a strategy. A grade two student was asked to tell all she could about an elephant. The response was "An elephant is the biggest mammal in the world." The student was then shown the various ways of attaching meaning to a symbol using the example of 'pig' taken from the first lesson of Unit One (See Appendix, p. 96). Using these categories, plus connotation and class, she was asked to tell all she knew about the elephant. The oral response is quoted below:

The elephant is a big mammal. It is fat and clumsy and roars like a horn. The skin is grey and it has a tail, big ears, four feet and a trunk. It lives in a jungle, zoo or village. It reminds me of a clumsy person.

If this strategy was taught so that the student could employ it automatically, it would facilitate vocabulary learning. Therefore, it seems desirable to organize learning experiences which facilitate the development of such a strategy.

Methodology. Primarily the teaching method adopted in these texts is a variation of direct methods discussed in Chapter II. The lists of words to be learned are often categorized, for example, substituting words for "umbrella words" (Language And How To Use It, book Five, p. 163). Umbrella words refer to such words as 'good' and 'nice'.

The student is required to substitute a more precise word. This type of exercise is only effective if the teacher relates the meaning of these precise words to words and concepts already known by the students. It is not sufficient to give an exercise to develop precision in vocabulary, but the learning must be reinforced by giving writing activities utilizing the new knowledge. This extension of learning is not included in all of the series. This method of teaching may also tend to be teacher-dominated, and in some cases, may even limit the learning of new words. An example will clarify this statement. A teacher wishes to develop precision in vocabulary related to sounds. She may use an exercise such as the one provided in one of the texts (Language And How To Use It, book Six, p. 18), where the student is required to fill in the blank from a given list (e.g., The (gurgles) of a delighted baby). The students complete the exercise and their choices are discussed. As an alternative method she may write 'baby' on the board and ask the class to think of all the actions of the baby. As the students respond they explain their word by providing a suitable context for the word and their response is noted on the chalkboard. When the student responses are no longer forthcoming the teacher can contribute some new words by relating them to the known words given by the class.

After the oral discussion the chalkboard may illustrate the following:

	<u>Sound</u>	<u>Movement</u>
<u>Baby:</u> action of	cries	kicks
	laughs	wiggles
	giggles	writhes
	chuckles	crawls
	gurgles	rocks
	coos	rolls
	squawks	
	splutters	

As fluency has been developed in relation to action words the teacher can now develop control, or precision of meaning, by categorizing the list of words into these words that describe sound and those that describe movements. Further control is developed by using these words in the appropriate context. Therefore, it would seem that a more inductive approach could be used to encourage more active student participation which would hopefully foster fluency of, and control in, vocabulary. At no point in any of these series is such a strategy developed by which the student can unlock the meaning of new words. This aspect of technique, or the "how" of instruction is sadly neglected primarily because of the way in which the learning experiences are organized.

V. SUMMARY

The first part of this chapter determined certain principles which could be used to create instructional materials for vocabulary teaching. In the second part of the chapter, these principles were used as a guide to evaluate current materials with respect to range of meaning, methodology and organization. A discussion of this survey highlighted several important points related to the planning

of instructional materials in the area of vocabulary.

CHAPTER IV

THE CURRICULUM UNITS

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a description of the procedures involved in creating the curriculum units. The first part of the chapter includes a description of the twenty-four categories of meaning from which the units were developed. The manner in which the categories were organized into five separate clusters is also explained. A description of the format of the lessons and units comprises the second part of the chapter, concluded by a review of each unit, lesson by lesson.

II. CATEGORIES OF MEANING

A category of meaning describes the semantic relations between the symbol and the significate. From a survey of the literature, Evan-echko (1972) identified twenty-four different categories which illustrated the various ways of relating a symbol to its significate. These twenty-four categories, taken from Evanechko's (1970) unpublished dissertation, The Dimensions of Children's Meaning Space, were the basis from which the curriculum units were designed. These categories are described as follows:

1. Synonym. The members of each word pair have exactly or very nearly the same referent:

e.g. big - large
steal - rob

2. Similarity. The members of each word pair are similar through being aligned on some dimension, with the referent of the right-hand member occupying a more extreme position on this dimension:

e.g. small - tiny
hungry - starving

3. Superordinate. The left-hand member denotes a common class of which the right-hand concept is a member:

e.g. bird - sparrow
fruit - apple

4. Coordinate. The members of each pair refer to familiar members of a familiar class:

e.g. chair - table
beets - peas

5. Attribute. The right-hand member of each pair refers to a quality or attribute generally recognized as characterizing the object denoted by the left-hand member:

e.g. lemon - sour
turtle - slow

6. Contrast. The members of each word pair refer to opposite ends of a continuum:

e.g. hard - easy
loud - soft

7. Action-of. The right-hand member of each pair is an intransitive verb denoting concrete action associated with and performed by the agent referred to by the left-hand member:

e.g. dog - bark
baby - cry

8. Action-upon. The left-hand member of each pair is a transitive verb denoting a concrete action associated with and performed upon the object referred to by the right-hand member:

e.g. sweep - floor
throw - ball

9. Whole-part. The right-hand member of each pair refers to a familiar object recognized as an important part of a familiar whole denoted by the left-hand member:
 e.g. bird - wing
 hand - finger
10. Part-part. The members of each pair refer to familiar objects which are parts of a familiar whole:
 e.g. wall - floor
 arm - head
11. Common use. The right-hand member of each pair denotes an object associated with and acted upon by the agent referred to by the left-hand member:
 e.g. farmer - tractor
 dog - bone
12. Use of. The right-hand member of each unit denotes a use made of the left-hand member:
 e.g. orange - for eating
 envelope - for putting letters in
13. Repetition. The right-hand member of each unit is a repetition of the concept referred to by the left-hand member:
 e.g. drink - a drink of water
 tap - a tap on the wall
14. Contiguity. The left-hand member of the unit is defined by direct concrete interaction of place, time or activity with the right-hand member:
 e.g. apple - grows on a tree
 late - you can see by the clock
15. Free association. The members of the unit are free associates:
 e.g. carry - heavy
 enjoy - fun
16. Connotation. The right-hand member of each pair connotes a relationship with the left-hand member:
 e.g. royal - strong
 modern - good

17. Analysis. The right-hand member is an analysis of the left-hand member indicating certain dimensions of function of this concept:

e.g. rule - to control people
lengthen - make a thing longer

18. Synthesis. The right-hand member defines the left-hand member by stating its relation with other concepts commonly associated with it:

e.g. acorns - from an oak tree
bunk - it has two levels

19. Extension of a class (Implication). The right-hand member of the unit gives examples of concepts to which the left-hand member might refer implying a degree of familiarity with the concept:

e.g. bugs - insects and flies
farming - crops and animals

20. Denotation in Context. The left-hand member is defined by use in context:

e.g. sharpen - sharpen the knife till it cuts
well
bitten - bitten by a snake

21. Ostensive Definition. The right-hand member defines the left-hand member largely on the basis of experience:

e.g. tickle - you make someone laugh
selfish - all for yourself

22. Generic Definitions. The right-hand member denotes the common class to which the left-hand member belongs:

e.g. kindle - burn
cup - dinnerware

23. Class membership implied. The right-hand phrase attempts to bridge the gap between general and specific by using phrases such as "a kind of," "sort of" or "like a":

e.g. cone - like an ice-cream cone
stool - like a chair

24. Intension of a class (Genus et Differentia). The right-hand member states the class as well as the distinguishing features of the left-hand member:

e.g. sipped - drank a little at a time
notice - see and remember

(Evanechko, 1970, pp. 68-71)

III. ORGANIZATION OF THE CATEGORIES

The twenty-four categories were arranged in five clusters which the writer found logically consistent. The first cluster consisted of the following categories: category five - attribute, seven - action of, eight - action upon, nine - whole-part, ten - part-part, eleven - common use, twelve - use of, thirteen - repetition, fourteen - contiguity. The organizing principle upon which these categories were grouped was experience as these categories appeared to be more related to direct, sensory data than the remaining categories.

For example, a child may recognize the fruit 'lemon', because it has a sour taste (category five). He does not need words to develop this concept, but by labelling this yellow fruit 'lemon', and the taste 'sour', he is able to use words which represent this concept in order to detach each specific instance from experience. The remaining categories in this cluster seemed similar in this respect, therefore they were grouped together and the unit was labelled Meanings Based on Experience.

Dale (1965) states that two basic problems in vocabulary development are (1) providing experiences, and (2) labelling, and filing these experiences. Dale's statement oversimplifies the problem

of vocabulary development; however, he does emphasize two important processes. He further elaborates that thinking about the vocabulary outcomes of all experiences increases the quality and range of these experiences, but he does not say how. This first unit attempted to provide these experiences, label them in as many different ways as possible in order to develop the range and quality to which Dale refers. It also attempted to show how the various categories of meaning could be utilized to improve the writing of descriptions.

Category twenty was the only category used to develop the second unit as the primary purpose of this unit was to foster the idea that meaning is not fixed and static but changes as the context varies. For this reason the unit was titled Meanings Determined by Context. Categories fifteen and sixteen (Free association and Connotation) seemed to cluster logically as both categories emphasized the connotative aspect of word meaning. These categories formed the basis for one unit, Meanings Based on Feelings, and exercises were provided to show how this aspect of word meaning could be developed to produce figurative language. The fourth unit was called Meanings Based on the Explanation of Words and consisted of several categories; category one - synonym, two - similarity, six - contrast, seventeen - analysis, eighteen - synthesis, twenty-one - ostensive definition. These categories used different words to express a similar meaning. Hence, the emphasis was on developing groups of words which represent a similar concept. Category six (contrast) does not follow this reasoning, but it does use words and concepts already known to express new meanings, consequently, it seemed to fit more

logically into this unit. It can be seen that these categories do not necessarily develop new meanings, but, as Dolch (1953) points out, they merely replace old meanings with new words. However, the acquisition of such knowledge is necessary for effective communication. The remaining categories constituted the fifth unit entitled Meanings Based on Class Membership. The reason for this grouping is implicit in the title. The arrangement of these categories is summarized in Table I (p. 62).

The rationale for the arrangement of the categories of meaning was explained to four independent judges. These judges were then asked to group the categories according to the given criteria. There was a consensus among the four except for categories nine (whole-part) and ten (part-part). One of the judges placed these categories in the group which demonstrated class membership. Apart from this exception, the arrangement of the categories by the judges and the writer was identical; therefore these clusters were retained to provide the content for each unit.

Having established the clusters to be contained in each unit, appropriate activities were selected and created to implement the teaching of the various categories of meaning. The selected vocabulary to be developed in this program was considered to be within the range of grade five pupils. Since the aim of the units was to develop quality rather than quantity of meaning, the exercises were also designed to encourage pupils to use their known words in a variety of written and oral situations.

TABLE I

Arrangement of Categories of Meaning

<u>Organizing Principle</u>	<u>Description of the categories of Meaning</u>	<u>Number of Categories of Meaning</u>
<u>Unit One</u> Meanings based on <u>experience</u>	5. Attribute: lemon-sour 11. Common use: dog-bone 7. Action of: dog-bark 12. Use of: orange-for eating 8. Action upon: sweep-floor 13. Repetition: drink - drink 9. Whole-part: bird-wing of water 10. Part-part: wall-floor 14. Contiguity: apple - grows on a tree	9
<u>Unit Two</u> Meanings deter- mined by <u>context</u>	20. Denotation in context: bitten - bitten by a snake	1
<u>Unit Three</u> Meanings based on <u>feelings</u>	15. Free association: carry-heavy 16. Connotation: royal - strong	2
<u>Unit Four</u> Meanings based on the explanation of words	1. Synonym: big - large 17. Analysis: rule - to control people 2. Similarity: small - tiny 3. contrast: hard - easy 18. Synthesis: acorns - from an oak tree 21. Ostensive Definition: tickle - you make someone laugh	6
<u>Unit Five</u> Meanings based on <u>class membership</u>	3. Superordinate: bird - sparrow 22. Generic definitions: kindle - burn 4. co-ordinate: chair - table 19. Extension of class: bugs - insects and flies 23. Class membership im-plied: stool - like a chair 24. Intension of a class: notice - see & remember	6

IV. FORMAT OF THE UNIT

These materials were written for teachers to adapt and interpret to meet the needs of their particular classes. They were written in lesson form to promote the use of the inductive strategy. Guidelines for questioning techniques were suggested throughout and, whenever possible, several approaches were outlined within lessons to accommodate differences in teaching style.

Each unit consisted of a different number of lessons, but all units contained similar types of lessons. The first lesson in each unit established the objective of the unit. The following lessons developed this objective. The latter lessons in the units provided for the application of the knowledge gained from the realization of the objective. The last unit contained additional lessons which provided for written application of the knowledge gained from the total program.

V. FORMAT OF THE LESSON

Each lesson began with the teacher giving a positive instance of the concept that was to be developed. For example,

Teacher writes the following frame on the board:

1. dog - barks
2. cat - meows
3. baby -
4. children -
5. wind -
6. brakes

(Unit One, p. 98)

After the teacher has given examples of words that describe the action of the first two words listed above, the students are then given an opportunity to provide other positive examples of the concept. Scratches, yelps, growls, yaps are further examples of the actions of dog. Following such a discussion the students are also encouraged to make a generalization about the learning that has taken place. In this example, the students would be encouraged to state that the words in the second column describe the action of the words underlined. This procedure is followed by an application of the newly learned concept. This application can take the form of further oral discussion, written work, individual, or group work. Such decisions depend upon the teachers' preference.

VI. DESCRIPTION OF THE UNITS

The description of the units is organized in the following manner: each unit is discussed separately with a brief reference to the lessons which are presented sequentially. The complete units are contained in the appendix (pp. 95-140).

Unit One - Meanings Based on Experience

This unit consisted of eight lessons designed to show how meaning can be attached to a symbol in a variety of ways. For example, in reply to "What is a horse?", the following responses would indicate some knowledge of the meaning of horse.

horse

agile	- attribute of
neighs	- action of
for riding	- use
mane, legs, tail	- parts
jockey	- common use

The first lesson in this unit constituted a class discussion to introduce the students to the idea that there are several ways of attaching meaning to words. The remainder of the lessons focused separately on the categories cited previously.

Lesson two focused on category five (attribute of) and included written and enrichment activities. The third and fourth lessons discussed categories seven (action of), and eight (action upon). These lessons also included a variety of written assignments followed by enrichment activities.

Several approaches were outlined in lesson five which included categories nine (whole-part) and ten (part-part). The sixth lesson centred upon category eleven (common use), followed by the seventh lesson explaining category twelve (use of). Both lessons had a choice of exercises and several enrichment activities. Lesson eight contained several exercises on category thirteen (repetition of), and three culmination activities. These last three activities involved the students in descriptive writing as it was hoped that the students would apply the categories presented in this unit to guide and structure their written descriptions. Category fourteen (contiguity) was not given special attention.

Unit Two - Meanings Determined by Context

This second unit which consisted of three lessons based on category twenty (context) attempted to show that meaning is not fixed and static.

The first lesson contained an oral introduction to show how context influences meaning. Lesson two outlined an exercise in which the students were required to select the appropriate word for the context. The exercise in the third lesson required the students to develop a different context for the same word to illustrate different meanings. Several enrichment activities completed the unit.

Unit Three - Meanings Based on Feelings

The purpose of this unit was to make the students aware of the connotative aspect of word meaning. This unit was comprised of six lessons plus many enrichment activities based on category fifteen (free association) and category sixteen (connotation).

The first lesson called for an oral discussion of abstract words, for example 'best', in order to develop an awareness that the same word can have very different meanings for different people. This notion was further developed in lesson two by providing a written assignment. Lesson three developed the use of the simile. Lesson four provided similes, taken from the children's poetry, for critical appreciation. In the next period, lesson five, the students were given an opportunity to develop their own similes. Lesson six concluded the unit. In this lesson the students selected words and similes from a poetry selection which they considered effective.

Unit Four - Meanings Based on Explanation

The purpose of this unit was to develop precision in meaning by looking at words with similar meanings.

This fourth unit consisted of six categories, but the writer focused mainly on three of these categories. Categories seventeen (analysis), eighteen (synthesis), and twenty-one (ostensive definition) did not receive special attention as these categories are frequently employed in the current teaching of vocabulary. Secondly, these categories are used repeatedly by dictionaries for the explanation of words. Therefore, the treatment of these categories was incidental in the discussion of dictionary meanings. A discussion of dictionary meanings was presented in the first of the six lessons which comprised unit four. Lesson one provided activities on the use of the synonym (category one). The first part of the lesson consisted of an oral discussion followed by an exercise. The second part of the lesson developed the following ideas: (1) sometimes synonyms prove useless unless the idea which the synonym represents is already known, (2) often dictionary meanings are obscure. A comparison was made between the dictionary and the reading glossary, (3) the study of synonyms adds new words to known meanings.

The second lesson demonstrated the effect of context upon the use of certain synonyms. Lesson three discussed words that are similar in meaning (category two), followed by lesson four which attempted to develop the ability to use words, similar in meaning, in a precise fashion. Lesson five contained exercises based on the gradation of

words which expressed a similar idea. Working with antonyms (category-contrast) was the content of lesson six.

Enrichment activities were included in lesson four only. Because of the nature of the categories, this unit tended to be more prescriptive than any other unit.

Unit Five - Meanings Based on Class Membership

This unit endeavoured to strengthen the students' ability to classify and apply general class names for this classification. It also attempted to show students that the appropriateness of class names and specific words must be judged in terms of the purpose of the writing.

The unit contained six lessons based on six categories. The categories included: category three (superordinate), four (coordinate), nineteen (extension of a class), twenty-two (generic definitions), twenty-three (class membership implied), and twenty-four (intension of a class). Specific attention was not given to each category, as each one is involved either incidentally or purposefully in the classification exercises.

An oral discussion on the manner in which objects may be classified was developed in the first lesson. Lesson two outlined seven exercises graded according to difficulty. The teachers were instructed to teach only those exercises which they considered suitable for their particular class. The ability to use and understand general class names was the aim of lessons three and four. Lessons five and six illustrated the appropriate use of general class names in writing. Two

culmination activities concluded the program.

Examples of the teaching units are presented in the appendix of this study (pp. 95-140).

VII. SUMMARY

The first part of this chapter described the twenty-four categories of meaning and explained how these categories were organized into five clusters to form the content of the five units. The second part of the chapter outlined the format of the unit and lessons, followed by a description of each unit lesson by lesson.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, DISCUSSION, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

I. SUMMARY

"Is it not sometimes the responsibility of the investigator to conceive of an ideal program he would like to see operational, and then to devise a study that will show how certain parts of that program can effectively be taught?" (Petty, Herold and Stoll, 1968, p. 67).

This present study attempted to provide one solution to parts of the question posed by Petty, Herold and Stoll. A survey of the literature was undertaken to determine the principles and techniques for teaching vocabulary. On the basis of this review, certain principles and techniques pertaining to content, organization and method of teaching vocabulary were established. An evaluation of several language texts revealed the need for a more complete set of instructional materials incorporating these desired principles. Using ideas from a variety of sources a set of materials was created. The program consisted of five units based on the twenty-four categories of meaning.

After the conception of this program the writer attempted to show how certain parts of it could be taught. Petty, Herold and Stoll (1968) comment that whilst many scholars and graduate students continue to produce a vast number of studies, many of which purport to find 'a' or 'the' best method, teachers continue to teach meanings in much the same way. To overcome this lack of communication between

the researcher and the practitioner the following procedure was undertaken:

1. Several teachers in the Edmonton Public School System were contacted. The selected teachers were known to be interested in teaching the language arts. Dale, as reported in Petty, Herold and Stoll (1968), points out that the success of any materials and methods depends very greatly on the teachers' interest. Five teachers were involved, one teacher taught grade four, the remainder taught grade five. The teachers were not at the same schools nor were the schools in the same area of the city.
2. The rationale and organization of the units were explained individually to each teacher. The teachers expressed concern at "getting through" the experimental program. The researcher suggested that it would be preferable to choose those units that would fit in with their language arts program. For example, one teacher stated that she intended to teach a unit on poetry, therefore unit three was recommended. Hence, all units were taught by some of the teachers, but no teacher taught all of the units.
3. The teachers were advised that they could have further consultation if any difficulties arose regarding the implementation of the units. None of the teachers made such a request.
4. After a period of three months the investigator visited each teacher to discuss the units. These discussions furnished ideas for improvement and provided some indication of the possible strengths of the program.

Although the study attempted to devise an 'ideal' program and implement it in some classrooms, it cannot produce any empirical evidence to suggest that the program is, indeed, ideal. This lack of evidence does not imply a disregard for scientific method, but it does reflect the absence of 'a' valid instrument by which to measure the success of such a program. The following points present some notion of the difficulties encountered in evaluating the units designed for this study. These points also constitute the limitations of the study.

II. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The units were conceived as a program in which vocabulary acquisition was designed as an important part of a general, humanistic study of language communication. Such a program cannot be implemented and evaluated adequately in a brief period of time.
2. The units attempted to develop qualitative meaning. The emphasis was not primarily on the number of words available for spoken or written use, but on the development of the range and quality of the words themselves. "Class attention to the expansion in meaning of familiar words will develop a corresponding sensitivity to language in the pupils" (Deighton, 1959, p. 58). This raises certain questions. How does one measure this sensitivity? What effect does this have upon the learning and retention of vocabulary?
3. The organization of the units was related to how the particular categories of meaning could be used as organizers for specific types

of written communication. Therefore, in order to determine whether the vocabulary knowledge gained from the teaching of a particular unit transferred to a written situation, specific kinds of testing devices are needed to reveal such achievements. As each unit purports to develop different aspects of meaning, one testing instrument is insufficient.

4. Throughout the units the writer attempted to make the units motivating and interesting by including various approaches within lessons (for example, Unit One, lesson four) and also by providing enrichment activities and language games. Two very difficult areas to measure are those of attitude and interest, as measuring instruments in this area are particularly weak. In spite of the difficulties surrounding the measurement of these two variables the researcher should consider these factors as they do affect learning. "Many researchers considering vocabulary development pass over motivation without mention" (Petty, Herold and Stoll, 1968, p. 19). This lack of concern for motivation and interest seems to arise from the false assumption held by researchers that interest in learning vocabulary is either automatically guaranteed or is an unimportant aspect of such study (Petty, Herold and Stoll, 1968). Although the present writer consciously planned to create materials that would stimulate and motivate students to develop an interest in vocabulary, it is very difficult to determine the success of such planning. This difficulty is partly related to the lack of measuring instruments and partly related to teacher effectiveness.

5. Teacher effectiveness can be a potent influence on the results of any method. A teacher who is enthusiastic when using a certain method will transmit some of this feeling to some of the students. The investigator purposefully chose teachers who were particularly interested in teaching the language arts and therefore these teachers probably demonstrated a certain amount of enthusiasm when teaching the units.

Within the light of these limitations the following pages discuss some strengths and weaknesses of the program.

III. DISCUSSION

The first part of this discussion reviews some of the strengths and weaknesses related to the total program. The discussion is organized in accordance with the following dimensions: range of meaning, organization and methodology. The second part of the discussion examines each unit separately, providing specific suggestions for improvement or specific examples of lessons or activities which the teachers considered especially effective.

Range of Meaning

As none of the teachers taught all of the units they were not in a position to comment on the total range of meaning presented in the five units. However, most of the teachers taught units one and three and some of their comments regarding the range of meaning are applicable to the remainder of the units. The teachers commented that they had not really considered the complexities of attaching meaning to

a symbol and at first were concerned that the pupils would find the naming of the various semantic relations too complex and confusing. One teacher also commented that she thought some of the categories, particularly the categories in unit one, were too "picky". This latter comment will be discussed later. After having taught the units only one teacher expressed any difficulty with regard to the labelling process and that was in relation to category one - attribute referred to in unit one as "quality of", this teacher preferred to use "describes", and in addition she found it easier to use a different frame from the one presented in the unit. For example, rather than write "Sugar is _____" (Unit One, p. 93), she found the frame "The _____ sugar" facilitated instruction as it prevented the student from writing "Sugar is food" and "Glass is a window", thus allowing students to focus on the attribute of the particular object.

Another teacher stated that she appeared to have much more difficulty retaining the labels of the categories than her students did. Possibly, this difficulty arose from the fact that the teacher could use the prepared examples provided in the unit, whereas the pupils had to think about the semantic relationships in order to generate an example. This teacher quoted one example of a class activity which demonstrated the pupils' competence in labelling and manipulating the categories of meaning. In this particular activity, the pupils were playing an oral language game whereby one pupil enumerated various categories of meaning illustrating each category by an example. These examples were all related to one object. After the categories had been

presented orally the remainder of the class had to name the object. One student gave the following description: action of - flows; quality of - clear; use - supports life, used for drinking; parts - bank, water, bed. This pupil was supposedly describing "stream", but the class responded "river". One child commented that a better word could have been given for action of, for example, 'trickles', to show that it was a small body of water. This remark sparked off a lively discussion with other pupils giving more examples of specific words to illustrate the differentiation between "river" and "stream." The teacher was most surprised not only at the precision of vocabulary which was being demonstrated, but also by the manner in which the students were manipulating and discussing the various categories of meaning.

With regard to the teacher who considered that some of the categories pertaining to Unit One were trite, experience in working with this particular unit altered her perception. She quoted one incident that influenced this change in opinion. In teaching lesson three (Unit One), she asked the students for the action of birds, to which the immediate response was "sings". She prodded the students for further examples and eventually one pupil volunteered an unusual response. This response motivated the remainder of the class to offer further responses which included such words as tweets, trilled, croaked, twittered, screeched, warbles, oinked and trumpeted. The teacher commented that from this occasion the quality of the class discussions improved considerably. A further suggestion was offered by this same teacher to clarify the use of the various categories presented in Unit One.

She suggested that a written description be collected from each child prior to the teaching of the unit. She further suggested that the teacher should evaluate these examples and enumerate the various categories employed by the members of the total class to write their descriptions. These categories could then be related to the ones included in the introductory lesson. Also, these descriptions could be compared to those written for one of the culminating activities in order to illustrate the improvement in this language skill. This process of comparing two such pieces of work is included within the last culminating activity, but, as this teacher further commented, the students have learned and retained most of these categories as they have been developed throughout the unit and they demonstrate this knowledge when they write their first description for the culminating activity. Her suggestion, to include a prior description before any teaching has taken place, would give the pupils an opportunity to see the growth in their development of this particular skill. This teacher also felt that it would be beneficial to add to the introductory statement so that it reads "Aim: To demonstrate to children that there are several ways in which one attaches meaning to words and that these different ways help us to write descriptions." She felt that such an addition would make the student cognizant of the reasons for studying the unit. As the writer included a similar statement in the introduction of the unit further elaboration was considered superfluous.

Organization. The units were considered to be well organized and logical; therefore the teachers found them easy to translate into

instruction. All of the teachers, except the one previously cited, commented that the introductory lessons were particularly effective in providing a clear outline for the remainder of the unit. One teacher commented that she found it much more effective to work on a unit continuously in the language arts program until it had been completed. However, when this was not possible she found the introductory lesson useful as it could be quickly skimmed to remind pupils of their previous learning.

One teacher, who taught both Units One and Five, recommended that these units might be taught consecutively as the categories presented in unit one are employed as the basis for classification in unit five. Secondly, she pointed out that unit one aims primarily at description and this process is utilized again in unit five when the pupils are required to make general statements more specific.

All the teachers commented upon the manner in which the units were organized so as to facilitate the extension of newly acquired vocabulary from the oral to the written situation.

Methodology. From the teachers' comments, the writer surmised that the inductive method of teaching employed in these units contributed much to the interest shown in this program. All the teachers reported that interest was high and that students enjoyed doing the activities. In response to the question "Why do you think they were motivated?" some of the teachers gave examples of pupil behavior which demonstrated that they were interested. Although all the teachers remarked that the pupils enjoyed the oral discussion and enjoyed sharing "their"

examples of the particular categories, only one teacher commented that she thought the enthusiasm sprang from the fact that the students were involved in producing language as opposed to analyzing words and completing dictionary activities. It appears that the inductive method of teaching was appropriate for the teaching of vocabulary. However, consideration must be given to the fact that the successful implementation of such a method is related in no small way to teacher effectiveness, and, as previously mentioned, these teachers were chosen because of their interest shown in the teaching of the language arts.

The following pages review each unit individually in a more detailed manner.

Unit One. Specific suggestions for including a preliminary activity related to descriptive writing was previously noted when discussing the ranges of meaning. Similarly, the suggestion to change the frame in lesson two from "Sugar is _____ (sweet)" (Unit One, p. 97) to "The (sweet) sugar" was also considered an improvement. In lesson three, two of the teachers commented that the examples given for the exercises in this lesson were poor. In this activity the pupils were required to state the action of a person. The examples given were "teacher" and "singer". These examples require only structural changes and some of the students extrapolated this process to the examples in the exercise producing such examples as astronomer - astronomizes, porter - ports. Perhaps the statement preceding the exercise should be changed to read "Children should be encouraged (rather than allowed) to use the dictionary" in order to prevent this overgeneralization.

In lesson four several group activities were suggested. Activity two (p. 99), which included a skit worked successfully, as did the first activity. Examples of students' work are given to show the results of the teaching of the third approach. After the students had studied the action of inanimate objects they were placed in groups. Each group was assigned a topic and was asked to enumerate the inanimate objects related to this topic and provide action words for each object. On the following page are examples of the charts produced by two of the eight groups.

Lesson five generated a lot of enthusiasm. The students were required to name several parts of an object so that the students could identify the object. One teacher commented that some of her students used the encyclopaedia extensively to fulfill this task. Another teacher stated that her students used this technique in their oral reports to convey the meaning of a new concept. Another teacher revealed how this activity became a starting point for creative writing. One of her students drew a Martian and created labels for its parts, for example, the feet were called "flibbers". This student's example motivated the remainder of the class to do a similar activity.

Several of the teachers expressed surprise at the lack of labels the students had at their disposal to describe the various animals' homes (p.103). For example, for dog and chicken, "yard" was the common response, for horse and sheep the students most commonly replied "field". From the three culminating activities (p.105) given, exercises two and three appeared to be the most successful.

Action of Inanimate Objects Mother's Kitchen

- ① pots - clags and rings
- ② dishes - smash and shine and glisten
- ③ stove - cooks and burns.
- ④ dishwasher - swirls, swishes.
- ⑤ refrigerator - hums, cools
- ⑥ garberator - roars, shakes,
- ⑦ kitchen door - sways and slams.



No. 6. Action of Unanimate Objects IN THE MOUNTAINS

Evergreen Trees - rustle, swish, sway

Animals - scurry, fight, (animate).

Mountain Climbers - hike, slip, grasps. (animate)

Rocks - tumble, click.

Avalanch - rumbles, bang

Streams - gingle, crackle.

❖ Glacier - melt (in the sun), slide, scrape,

Fig. 3 A Facsimile of Children's Vocabulary Charts

Unit Two. The only suggestion that was offered for this unit was that further activities might be included where the students have an opportunity to build a context for a word that has multiple meanings. The students are provided with an opportunity to develop context for words in one of the enrichment activities. Samples of work resulting from the activity entitled "Word Alchemy" are given below:

A stomach can ache
 To ache is pain
 Pain is to hurt
 Hurt is to hit
 Hit is to beat
 Beat eggs for breakfast
 Presto! A home made stomach ache!

by M. Shanley and G. Shergold

A revolving object is a wheel,
 To wheel is to turn,
 A good turn is a helping hand,
 To hand out is to chip in,
 Chip is to break
 A break is a stop,
 Stop signs halt wheels.

by E. Gullberg

Hands

The clock's hand moves
 To hand is to give
 If you give you receive
 To receive is enjoyment
 Enjoyment is happiness
 Happiness is a horse,
 A horse is measured by hands
 Here we are - back at the beginning!

by P. Berg

Pink is a shade
 Shade keeps you cool
 Cool means groovy
 Groovy is David Cassidy
 Cassidy is a star
 Stars in the sky
 Sky is blue
 Presto! Pink changed to blue?

by R. Smith

Unit Three. The teachers who taught this unit found the students enjoyed the activities presented. However, one common suggestion was that more examples of poetry might be included. One teacher found the introductory lesson too difficult. She used only one of the ideas suggested by the poem (p. 108). From the activities in lesson two, one teacher developed a class poem. She asked her pupils to write a few lines illustrating their personal meaning of fear. She selected a few samples and, together with the class, edited the various contributions to produce a class poem.

Fear

Fear is a dentist poking
 With a needle
 Forgetting the freezing
 Fear is aloneness
 Alone in my room with the light out
 Fear is a body check in hockey
 Wham! Against the boards I go.
 Fear is being pulled to another galaxy
 Or dreaming of falling from high places.

This class activity sparked an interest in writing poetry about other emotions:

Fun

Fun is going to bed
 Without any supper
 Getting up in the middle of the night
 To raid the refrigerator.

by Bobby James (grade six)

Another teacher related two of the enrichment activities to art experiences. The first was concerned with making an advertisement and writing a luring caption. The fourth enrichment activity involved writing a description of a character using words that are usually associated with animals (p.120). The teacher asked the students to write a description and illustrate it to fit a "wanted" sign. "Pug-nose Pete" and "Hawk-eyed Harry" were examples of some of the characters depicted.

Further suggestions for improvement considered by the writer include the following:

- (1) Activities to show how an experience with an object or person can effect word choice. For example, Mr. X may be called a miser by someone who dislikes him and thrifty by persons who are favorably impressed.
- (2) Activities to develop the use of the metaphor.
- (3) Activities to develop the understanding of idiomatic language.

Unit Four. As only one teacher used this unit there were few suggestions. The most significant comment was that the lesson developing a vocabulary of the senses produced some excellent class charts which the students consulted when writing their stories.

Unit Five. One of the greatest difficulties encountered by the pupils in doing these units was their inability to move from the general to the specific. For example, when pupils were asked to make the following sentence more specific, "Many different boats were in the harbor"(p.136) they experienced great difficulty. The nature of their responses were "John's boat," "Jack's boat" or "Red boats, blue

boats" or "Big boats, little boats". This lack of depth in their concepts as revealed by the example, boat, could have been developed earlier in the unit. Depth of vocabulary could be developed by providing activities which present the students with a class name such as "boat" and which require the students to provide specifics of the concept such as "frigate", "yacht", "schooner", "skiff", "liner", "coracle", "galleon", "sampan", "raft", "canoe", "submarine". Most of the activities in the first part of the unit focused on providing a class name for specific instances of a concept or identifying a criterial attribute common to three objects; therefore inclusion of further activities which develop depth of vocabulary would be beneficial.

The preceding pages constituted an evaluation of the vocabulary units designed for this study. This evaluation noted some of the improvements that could be incorporated into the units and highlighted some of the possible strengths which were sometimes illustrated by children's writing samples.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As a result of this study, research in the following areas would seem desirable.

1. There is a need for further extension of the present vocabulary units to incorporate the suggested improvements. Also, further units could be created for younger students involving more concrete materials, but utilizing the same teaching strategies.

2. There is a need for more appropriate tests which measure the wider application of word knowledge. It is suggested that a different test be used for each unit, as each unit purports to utilize the knowledge of words in a different way for different purposes.
3. A comparative study might be undertaken to determine the effect of the method of instruction included in this study on different groups of students. The students could be grouped on the basis of age, I.Q., or learning style.
4. A study might be devised to compare the skills approach to vocabulary with the approach presented in this study over a similar period of time.
5. Consideration may be given to the relationship between the method of teaching vocabulary outlined in this study and classroom interaction.

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1. The first part of the report is a summary of the work done during the year. This includes a description of the project, the objectives, the methods used, and the results obtained. The summary is followed by a detailed account of the work done during the year, which is divided into four main sections: the first section deals with the general principles of the project, the second section deals with the specific details of the work, the third section deals with the results obtained, and the fourth section deals with the conclusions drawn from the work.

2. The second part of the report is a detailed account of the work done during the year. This is divided into four main sections: the first section deals with the general principles of the project, the second section deals with the specific details of the work, the third section deals with the results obtained, and the fourth section deals with the conclusions drawn from the work. The first section deals with the general principles of the project, which are the basic ideas and concepts that underlie the work. The second section deals with the specific details of the work, which are the actual tasks and activities that were carried out. The third section deals with the results obtained, which are the findings and conclusions that were reached. The fourth section deals with the conclusions drawn from the work, which are the final thoughts and reflections on the project.

3. The third part of the report is a detailed account of the work done during the year. This is divided into four main sections: the first section deals with the general principles of the project, the second section deals with the specific details of the work, the third section deals with the results obtained, and the fourth section deals with the conclusions drawn from the work. The first section deals with the general principles of the project, which are the basic ideas and concepts that underlie the work. The second section deals with the specific details of the work, which are the actual tasks and activities that were carried out. The third section deals with the results obtained, which are the findings and conclusions that were reached. The fourth section deals with the conclusions drawn from the work, which are the final thoughts and reflections on the project.

APPENDIX

This unit is designed to show how meaning can be attached to a symbol in a variety of ways. For example, in reply to "What is a horse?" the following responses would indicate some knowledge of the meaning of horse.

horse

agile	- attribute of
neighs	- action of
for riding	- use
mane, legs, tail	- parts
jockey	- common use

The main body of the lessons in this unit focus on each of these different ways. After the unit has been completed the student should then be able to use these categories as a basis for writing descriptions (See activity 2, p. 11).

UNIT 1

Aim of the unit: To develop meaning based on the child's experience with the word.

Introductory Lesson

Aim: To demonstrate to children that there are several ways in which one attaches meaning to words.

Teacher writes on the board:

<u>pig</u>	- fat	- quality
	- squeals	- what it does
	- has curly tail, pink skin	- description of parts
	- we get pork from the pig	- common use
	- for eating	- use of
	- lives in a sty	- where it lives
<u>sweep</u>	- floor	- action upon
	- housewife	- common use
	- sweep the mat	- repetition
	- with a brush	- action

The children can then give oral responses to describe such words as clown, throw. The responses may be written on the board and the teacher can categorize them according to the different ways the child expresses meaning.

e.g. Clown - quality of: amusing, funny, silly.
what he does: laughs, fools around.
description of parts: funny costume, red nose, long shoes.
use: to make people laugh.
where: works in a circus.

The first lesson should be completely oral so that the children can concentrate on the different strategies of meaning rather than worry about writing skills.

Lesson 11

Aim: To focus the child's attention on one aspect of meaning - attribute or quality of the words described.

Introduction: The teacher refers to the last lesson and asks the children if they can recall any of the different ways of relating meaning to a word. After the class has responded she then tells the children they are going to look at one way of relating to a word.

Lemon is sour.

Sugar is _____ (sweet)

Lead is _____ (heavy)

Rain is _____ (wet)

Teacher draws from the class the generalization that these three words tell about some quality of the object. If the children give a response to lead as metal, accept the response. (It does tell us something about lead, but ask the child what the response to the first sentence in the frame would have to be (Lemon is a fruit)).

Ask the class to complete the following exercise.

- | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Glass is | 11. Cement is |
| 2. Ice is | 12. A basket ball is |
| 3. Blubber is | 13. Gum is |
| 4. A star is | 14. A bone is |
| 5. A breeze is | 15. A pillow is |
| 6. An eagle is | 16. Fog is |
| 7. A bear is | 17. A turtle is |
| 8. A frog is | 18. An ape is |
| 9. A dinosaur is | 19. A monkey is |
| 10. A nuisance is | 20. Homework is |

Allow the children to use the dictionary if they wish, but instruct them not to use the same word twice. The exercise may be marked orally in order to demonstrate that there may be several correct responses to the same question.

For example: Glass - transparent
 - fragile
 - breakable

Additional Activities for Enrichment

1. The children who finish could be asked to supply a second answer.
2. Make out some additional items for the rest of the class to be answered orally.

To conclude the lesson, the teacher should elicit the response that all these words describe the quality of the object or animal.

Lesson 111

Aim: To demonstrate that another way of illustrating meaning is by telling what a thing or person does (action of).

Teacher writes the following frame on the board:

- | | | | |
|--------------------|---|-----------------------------|----|
| 1. <u>dog</u> | - | barks | |
| 2. <u>cat</u> | - | meows | 98 |
| 3. <u>baby</u> | - | (cries) | |
| 4. <u>children</u> | | (yell, scream, laugh, etc.) | |
| 5. <u>wind</u> | - | (blows, whistles) | |
| 6. <u>brakes</u> | - | (screech) | |

Teacher completes 1 and 2. Children complete 3 to 6 orally. Ask the children what do these words (meow, yell, etc.) tell us about the underlined words (what they do; the action of the words underlined).

Children are asked to complete the following:

Animals:

- | | | | |
|-------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. A donkey | (kicks, brays) | 7. A bird | (dives, whistles) |
| 2. A beetle | (flies, drones) | 8. A turkey | (strutts, gobbles) |
| 3. A bull | (charges, bellows) | 9. A lamb | (gambles, bleats) |
| 4. A frog | (leaps, croaks) | 10. A monkey | (swings, chatters) |
| 5. A hyena | (dashes, screams) | 11. An elephant | (plods, trumpets) |
| 6. A hen | (pecks, cackles) | 12. A lion | (attacks, roars) |

People: e.g. Teacher - teaches; Singer - sings.

- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. astronomer | 9. porter | 17. tourist |
| 2. athlete | 10. jockey | 18. engineer |
| 3. aviator | 11. governess | 19. matron |
| 4. journalist | 12. artist | 20. witness |
| 5. coach | 13. poacher | 21. surgeon |
| 6. optician | 14. judge | 22. trespasser |
| 7. detective | 15. chauffeur | |
| 8. florist | 16. mason | |

Children should be allowed to use the dictionary if they wish. Answers may be marked orally.

Enrichment Activities

1. Choose one of the above occupations. Write down as many things associated with the word as you can.
2. Make up additional items for the class.
3. Choose one of the above occupations you would least or most like to be. State why.

The teacher should conclude the lesson by drawing the generalization from the children that the words they choose described some kind of action.

Aim: Continuation of Lesson III except attention is focused on action of inanimate objects.

Below are some possible examples. The teacher may approach the lesson as in previous lessons or try one of the approaches outlined after the examples.

A stream (babbles)	An engine (chugs)	Chains (jangle)
A door (slams)	Hoofs (clatter)	Dishes (rattle)
A drum (beats)	Coins (clink)	Silk (rustles)
A trumpet (blares)	Hinge (creaks)	Engines (sputter)
An explosion (blasts)	paper (crinkles)	Class (tinkles)
A gun (booms)	Brakes (grind)	Bow (twanges)
Water (bubbles)	Stream (gurgles)	Siren (wails)
Bells (chime)	Wind (howls)	Aeroplane (zooms)
Horns (toot)		etc.

Lesson may be approached in the following ways:

1. As written exercises.
2. As an oral lesson. Children are asked to name an object - the rest of the class respond.
3. Children are divided into several groups and given a topic. The group then makes up a list of words with action words to describe them.

Suggested topics:

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Busy street. | 6. In the mountains |
| 2. School playground. | 7. In the store. |
| 3. Klondike Exhibition. | 8. In the kitchen. |
| 4. The classroom | 9. At the Railway Station |
| 5. At the beach. | 10. At a birthday party. |

e.g. Busy street. horns - tooting.
 engines - sputtering, purring.
 people - pushing, crossing.
 drains - gurgling.
 lights - flashing.
 ambulance siren -wailing, etc.

Possible Group Activities.

1. Children make a chart for each group. (May be added to by the rest of the class in oral discussion.)
2. Children incorporate their action words in a short skit. After they have performed their skit the rest of the class write down as many of the responses as they can.

N.B. Some topics lend themselves more easily to this approach. It might be judicious to limit the number of words incorporated or limit the time of the skit (2 minutes).

3. Group may wish to incorporate their phrases into a written or oral story.
4. Group reports its findings to the class.

Lesson V

Aim: To demonstrate that a word may be understood by naming some of its parts.

The teacher makes a list of words on the board which name particular parts of a certain object.

e.g. screen	volume and switch	cord
antennae	program	off-on switch
Commercial	plug	

Teacher asks the children to what she is referring. (T.V.) How did they know? When the response has been elicited from the class that all the parts named belong to a particular object, she can then point out that this is another way of describing certain words.

Several approaches can be used to develop this concept, the teacher can choose the preferred approach.

Suggested Pictures or Objects

flower	tree	boats	ships
school	hockey/football	game	truck
book	kitchen	house	an animal
record player	car	spaceship	car
fire engine	store	hospital	fish
bird	library	Post Office	road
flashlight	ski slope	mountains	river
bridge	zoo	picnic area	airplane

(Children may wish to choose their own. Teacher may wish to designate objects related to science or an enterprise topic).

Suggested Approaches

1. Teacher assigns 1 object or allows limited choice and children write down as many parts as they can. This procedure may be done orally or written, individually or as a class assignment.
2. Teacher asks the children to bring, or draw a picture which they would like to label. Picture could be placed on a card, the children could

write down the parts on separate smaller cards, hence more could be added. After the children have done the exercises these cards could be placed in a large envelope and kept as spelling work cards or for dictionary skills (placing in alphabetical order) for slower children.

3. Class could be divided into groups to make their own charts, the groups could present their charts to the class. This presentation could be followed by oral discussion.

Lesson VI

Aim: To demonstrate that meaning of a word can be shown by stating an object which is commonly used by some person or animal.

- e.g.
1. dog - bone
 2. farmer - tractor
 3. pupil - (desk)
 4. soldier - (gun)
 5. scientist - (microscope)

The teacher proceeds as in previous lessons. Writes 1 and 2 on the board. Children complete 3 to 5 orally. By questioning the teacher elicits the response that their answers state an object which is commonly used by a particular person.

The children complete the following exercise:

Name an object which is commonly used by the following people:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Policeman (handcuffs) | 11. Tailor (thimble) |
| 2. Doctor (stethoscope) | 12. Artist (palette) |
| 3. Blacksmith (anvil) | 13. Druggist (prescription) |
| 4. Doctor/nurse (thermometer) | 14. Astronomer (telescope) |
| 5. Conductor (baton) | 15. Knight (lance) |
| 6. Pilot (joy-stick) | 16. Carpenter (chisel) |
| 7. Explorer (compass) | 17. Horse/jockey (harness) |
| 8. Postman (mailbag) | 18. Astronaut (spaceship) |
| 9. Surgeon (scalpel) | 19. Teacher (blackboard) |
| 10. Coast guard (life boat) | 20. Housewife (vacuum) |

The children may give different responses and these responses may denote an object which is used by the agent. e.g., Conductor may elicit the response sheet music, this response may be applied to the term musician. Try to elicit a response which is exclusively used by the agent, i.e., baton.

N.B. For some of the items this will not be possible.

Further Enrichment Activities

The following exercise shows how one use of an object (to live in) is described in many different ways depending upon who or what is using it.

People: Man - house

convict (prison)	gypsy (caravan)
eskimo (igloo)	king (palace)
lumberjack (log cabin)	minister (manse)
monk (monastery)	nobleman (castle)
nun (convent)	pioneer (wagon, log cabin)
prisoner (cell)	red Indian (tepee)
soldier (barracks)	Swiss herdsman (chalet)

Animals:

ape (tree-nest)	beaver (lodge)
bear, lion (den)	bird (nest)
bee (hive)	eagle (eyrie)
dog (kennel)	fox, lion (lair)
chicken (coop)	pig (sty)
horse (stable)	sheep (pen, fold)
tame rabbit (hutch)	squirrel (drey)
wild rabbit (burrow, warren)	
badger (sett)	

Lesson VII

Aim: To show that meaning can be developed by stating what the object is used for.

e.g. orange - (for eating)
 envelope - (for putting things in)

Teacher writes the above frame on the board. Asks the class what the words in brackets tell us about the word on the left (what it's used for). Children complete the following exercises either orally or written after they have given examples of objects and explained their function.

What are the following used for?

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. safe (for keeping money in) | 7. avocado (for eating) |
| 2. *vehicle (for riding in - ask children if kayak is a vehicle) | 8. cocoa (for drinking) |
| 3. amulet (for wearing by a witch doctor) | 9. six (for math counting) |
| 4. ointment (for healing) | 10. sapphire (for making jewellery) |
| 5. platter (for eating from) | 11. cement (for building) |
| 6. goblet (for drinking from) | 12. lance (for fighting) |
| | 13. mansion (for living in) |

- | | |
|--|--|
| 14. cello (for playing) | 25. oxygen (for living, resus- |
| 15. couch (for sitting on) | citating, breathing) |
| 16. asphalt (to pave streets) | 26. pillar (for supporting) |
| 17. ballad (for singing) | 27. plastic (for making things) |
| 18. blubber (for lamps) | 28. schedule (for organizing events) |
| 19. cauldron (for boiling things in) | 29. skewer (for holding meat together) |
| 20. corral (keep cattle in) | 30. sun dial (for telling time) |
| 21. cutlass (for fighting) | 31. telescope (for making things |
| 22. idol (for worshipping) | bigger) |
| 23. *kayak (for riding in - ask | 32. shellac (for covering wood) |
| children if this is a vehicle) | |
| 24. observatory (for looking at stars) | |

N.B. Children should be allowed to use the dictionary.

Teacher may do all or part of the exercise depending upon the needs of the children.

1. Items 1 - 15, general.
2. Items 16 - 33, more specific.
3. Exercises may be done orally or written - answers could be given orally followed by discussion, e.g., pillar - for supporting. What do you mean by supporting? Where have you seen pillars that support? What are they made from? etc.
4. It would be better to give fewer items and have more discussion than all items and no discussion.
5. Number of items given at one time again depends upon the ability of the class and the time available.

Other enrichment activities are given below.

1. Do you know what a receptacle is? Look up the meaning of the word in the dictionary. The following words are receptacles. They are all used for keeping things in. By each receptacle name the contents you would expect to find.

- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|--------------|
| 1. brief case | 10. basket | 19. boiler |
| 2. cannister | 11. bowl | 20. bunker |
| 3. cask | 12. carafe | 21. carton |
| 4. barrel | 13. cellar | 22. compact |
| 5. cruet | 14. decanter | 23. drum |
| 6. envelope | 15. ewer | 24. flagon |
| 7. gasometer | 16. hamper | 25. keg |
| 8. phial | 17. portfolio | 26. sheath |
| 9. vat | 18. vase | 27. wardrobe |

2. The following exercise names certain places used for worshipping, business, playing, certain sports. Put W by those for worship, B by those for business and S by those for sports.

The first three are done for you.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. church - W | 12. bakery - (B) |
| 2. rink - S | 13. stadium - (S) |
| 3. bank - B | 14. dairy - (B) |
| 4. court - (S and B) | 15. brewery - (B) |
| 5. studio - (B) | 16. ring - (S) |
| 6. pagoda - (W) | 17. tannery - (B) |
| 7. pitch - (S) | 18. cathedral - (W) |
| 8. abbey - (W) | 19. mint - (B) |
| 9. distillery (W) | 20. course - (S) |
| 10. alley - (S) | 21. priory - (W) |
| 11. tabernacle - (W) | 22. auditorium - (S) |

3. Explain what the following are used for:

1. arena (bull fighting)
2. surgery (patients see doctor)
3. aquarium (fish are kept)
4. vineyard (grapes grown)
5. reservoir (water stored)
6. cemetery (people are buried)
7. hangar (aeroplanes stored)
8. granary (grain stored)
9. museum (historical relics kept)
10. nursery (young children go, plants kept)

Lesson VIII

Aim: To show that meaning can be demonstrated by repeating the word given plus an example of the word.

e.g., drink - drink of water.
tap - tap on the wall.

The teacher writes the following frame on the board:

1. drink - drink of water.
2. tap - tap on the wall.
3. pair - (pair of shoes)
4. pat - (pat on the back)
5. shower - (shower of rain)
6. bunch - (bunch of grapes)

The teacher asks the class how the words on the left tell something about the words on the right. (Through questioning the teacher should elicit the generalization that the words are repeated, but when they are repeated an example is given to show that the meaning is understood.)

The class complete the following exercise. Their answers may be marked orally.

Animate:

1. an army of (soldiers)
2. a board of (directors)

3. a choir of (singers)
4. a drove of (cattle)
5. a horde of (savages)
6. a plague of (locusts, insects)
7. a team of (horses, exen, players)
8. a troop of (lions, monkeys)
9. a band of (musicians)
10. a brood of (chickens)
11. a crew of (sailors)
12. a flock of (birds, sheep)
13. a litter of (cubs, pups)
14. a school of (whales, fish)
15. a tribe of (natives, Indians)
16. a troupe of (minstrels, dancers)

Inanimate:

1. a bale of (cotton, wool)
2. a clump of (trees)
3. a collection of (stamps, pictures)
4. a fleet of (cars, ships)
5. a sheaf of (corn)
6. a bouquet of (flowers)
7. a cluster of (stars, diamonds)
8. a crate of (fruit)
9. a flight of (steps, aeroplanes)
10. a tuft of (grass)

Children should be allowed to use their dictionary to complete this exercise. Teacher should point out by questioning that all these words are group terms and that by giving an example of the members of the group the meaning is made more explicit.

This exercise is based largely on the child's experience with the object.

N.B. There may be several 'correct' responses.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| 1. clank of (chains) | 7. a crust of a (wave) |
| 2. knock on (door, etc.) | 8. a crevice in the (wall) |
| 3. meandering of (river) | 9. pupil in the (eye) |
| 4. aim of the (gun, arrow) | 10. a cascade of (water) |
| 5. beam of (light) | 11. a puncture in the (tire) |
| 6. a conqueror of the (country, battle, fight) | |

Culmination Activities

Choose one of the following exercises to culminate this unit.

1. the teacher gives the following instructions to the class: Think of a texture - write down what it is. Name 3 objects which have this texture. Do they change? Describe them (who uses them, what are they used for? Name some of their parts, attributes, etc.) Through questioning the children can be reminded of the various ways they have examined of attaching meaning to words.

2. The teacher holds up an object or picture of an object. The class is asked to write down all their ideas associated with it. The class then gives some of their responses orally, the teacher writes them down on the board (numbers them).

e.g. object: Thermos - bottle

Possible responses:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. glass | 6. picnickers use it |
| 2. plastic | 7. thermos of hot coffee |
| 3. use for keeping things in | 8. it has a vacuum in it |
| 4. it has a top which is a cup | 9. it keeps things hot/cold |
| 5. it's red and green | 10. it has a stopper |

The teacher then may ask, "what do numbers 1, 2 and 5 tell us about a thermos bottle?" (They all tell about some quality.) "Does anyone else have anything different which tells about the quality of the thermos?" "What do numbers 3 and 9 tell us?" (What it is used for.) "Does anyone else have any different uses?" "What do numbers 4, 8, and 10 tell us?" (It names different parts.) "Did anyone name any other parts?" "What do numbers 6 and 7 tell us?" (Who uses it, an example of what is kept in it.) "Look at your own responses and see how many different ways you described the object. Notice any of the ways of describing a word that you omitted." (Children may have other ways of describing the object other than those dealt with in this unit. Accept them but do not provide elaboration at this point.)

Now show the children another stimulus asking them to write down all the ideas associated with it. Some of the descriptions may be read aloud or the exercise may be marked by the teacher.

N.B. Ask the children to compare their first description with the second one to see if they have a better description.

3. The teacher takes a topic for story writing.

e.g. Jungle, Space, Beach, Park, Klondike Exhibition.

Writes various subheadings on the board.

e.g. weather: damp, hot, humid
animals: ape
sound: gibbers
motion: swings
description: ungainly
colors and sights: lush vegetation, bananas for monkeys to eat
sounds: chattering of monkey
feelings: scared

Children give examples, some are written on the board, the rest may be given orally. Teacher then asks the children to write a description of a jungle scene as though they were describing it to someone who has never seen a Jungle or a picture of a Jungle.

The purpose of this unit is to develop the idea that the meaning of a word changes as the context changes. The lessons teach the children to:

- 1) Identify the different meanings of words in different contexts
- 2) Build a context for words to illustrate the different meaning of words with multiple meaning.
- 3) Use this above knowledge to complete several enrichment activities.

UNIT 11

Aim of the Unit: To show how context influences meaning.

Lesson 1

Teacher writes the following sentence on the board:

1. In his last years of life, ill fortune brought the business man poverty and loneliness.

Ask the class what 'ill' means in this context (unfavorable, unfortunate). Then put the second sentence on the board:

2. For several years Mr. Brown suffered from the ill will of his neighbors.

What does 'ill' mean in this sentence (unkind). Third sentence:

3. Jane is ill today and cannot attend school.

What does 'ill' mean in this sentence (sick).

After discussion of the sentences the teacher should elicit the response that the meaning of a word is determined by the surrounding words, the name given to these words is the context. The class can then build context orally for the following words:

run - moving quickly
run - a film
run - for president
run - in baseball
run - engine runs smoothly
run - the red dye runs into the white
run - the liquids run, tap runs
run - a stitch around the hem of the dress

Other words for discussion: turn, strike, take, set, round.

Lesson 11

Aim: To show several meanings of a word by meeting it in different contexts.

Teacher reviews the last lesson and elicits the response that context determines meanings. The class is then given the following exercise which should be marked orally. The teacher should try to get the children to explain how they determined the meaning of each word in context.

Exercise 1

Read each sentence and choose the proper meaning for the word underlined. Use your dictionary if you do not understand the meaning of the word.

1. We live on a hill and from our window we have a fine prospect.
(a) something hoped for or expected. (b) view or scene. (c) a likely person.
2. Our business is growing, and we have prospects of a profitable future.
(a) views. (b) search. (c) hopes.
3. The prospect of living in this old house for many years makes us unhappy.
(a) view. (b) look ahead. (c) hope.
4. The men are going to prospect for gold.
(a) search. (b) view. (c) likely person.
5. Uncle Ed is a good prospect for advisor to our club.
(a) a likely person. (b) view. (c) a look ahead.
6. The person who directed the play must have been very talented as the play was outstanding.
(a) frank. (b) manage. (c) straight.
7. There is a direct flight from Edmonton to Vancouver daily.
(a) proceeding in a straight line. (b) manage. (c) exact.
8. The tired tourist enquired "Could you direct me to the nearest hotel?"
(a) truthful. (b) show the way. (c) control.
9. "Come," said the principal to the guilty child, "I want a direct answer."
(a) guide. (b) exact. (c) frank.
10. The boxer gave his opponent a direct hit on the end of his nose and knocked him out.
(a) exact. (b) frank. (c) straight.
11. "I prefer fresh vegetables to frozen or canned ones," said Jane.
(a) newly made, grown or gathered. (b) recent. (c) not salty.

12. "Have you heard any fresh news from your mother?" asked Mary.

(a) not stale or spoiled. (b) recent. (c) pure.

13. A halibut is not a fresh water fish.

(a) not salty. (b) pure, cool. (c) stale.

The teacher may extend the exercise further with the following words:

(a) field (b) line (c) sack (d) can (e) adhere (f) compose (g) compact

Lesson III ¹

Aim: To show children how to develop context for their own sentences.

The teacher gives the following exercise to the class: State whether the following underlined words have a special meaning for either person listed. Do they both think of the same thing? Write 'same' or 'different'.

1. <u>match</u> :	a fire builder - a tennis player	different
2. <u>horn</u> :	a truck driver - a musician	different
3. <u>pencil</u> :	a teacher - a student	same
4. <u>spoon</u> :	a waitress - a restaurant customer	same
5. <u>letter</u> :	a printer - a mailman	different
6. <u>plate</u> :	a baseball player - a butler	different
7. <u>dust</u> :	a prospector - a housewife	different
8. <u>road</u> :	a car driver - a truck driver	same
9. <u>sky</u> :	a policeman - a milkman	same
10. <u>table</u> :	a carpenter - a mathematician	different
11. <u>line</u> :	an artist - a telephone operator	different
12. <u>string</u> :	a grocer - a mailman	same
13. <u>water</u> :	a boy - a girl	same
14. <u>ball</u> :	a golfer - a football player	different
15. <u>field</u> :	a farmer - a baseball player	different
16. <u>smile</u> :	a beggar - a millionaire	same
17. <u>needle</u> :	a seamstress - a lumberjack	different

Mark the exercise orally. The class completes several sentences to show the differences in both meanings of the words, horn (2), and letter (5). Allow the children to take 3 of the above words and build a context which shows the difference in meanings.

Again this exercise may be done orally or written. Conclude the unit by eliciting the response from the children that context determines the meaning of certain words.

i.e. Meaning changes depending upon the surrounding words. It is not static.

Enrichment Activities

Word Alchemy⁶

1. Write the following verse on the board:

Pebbles are rocks,
To rock is to sway,
To sway is to quake.
A quake can break glass;
Glass is like ice;
Ice sparkles like diamonds.
Presto! We have changed
a pebble into a diamond.

Ask the class what the writer is doing with the meanings of the word such as rock (using two meanings). Does he use two meanings for sway (no but a similar meaning). How does he get from quake to glass (tells what the quake does). How does he move from glass to ice and ice to diamonds (by comparing). Why was the writer able to do this? If the children cannot supply the answer (because there is no context to stabilize meaning), write the following sentences on the board:

The rocks on the beach were covered in seaweed.

The boat rocked to and fro on the sea.

Ask the class if the meaning is clear in both sentences. Why? Then refer back to the original verse. Using similar techniques the class could make up some verses orally, then perhaps written.

Some suggested words:

A) To wait is a bore.
We bore a hole.
A hole is, etc.

B) Other words with multiple meaning: run, turn, strike, take, set, round.

2. Does it make sense?

The teacher writes several sentences on the board. i.e. Jerry has two sisters and three brothers-in-law. The class is asked to look up the meaning of underlined word and then state whether the sentence is true or false by seeing if the meaning of the word fits in with the context.

3. Teakettle Game

This game can be played orally. The first person might say: I will teakettle (set) my hair tonight for the party. Another person has to give the meaning of teakettle in that sentence and then give another meaning of the word in context. I can see the sun teakettle (set) on the horizon.

Before this game is played, the teacher could prepare the class by writing several words with multiple meaning on the board and asking the class to look up all these meanings before the game commences. A better approach might be to use some of the words previously studied in the unit.

UNIT THREE MEANING BASED ON FEELINGS

The purpose of this unit is to make the children aware of the connotative aspect of word meaning. The first two lessons are devoted to giving the pupils an opportunity to communicate their personal meanings of such words as beauty, fear, fun, etc. (p. 2). The association of certain meanings with certain words is extended into the teaching of similes in the following lessons. This unit provides appropriate activities for helping students to write poetry.

UNIT III

Aim of the unit: To demonstrate that the experience we have with a word and its referent influences its meaning. i.e. the connotative meaning.

Lesson I

Aim: To develop an awareness that the same word can have very different meanings for different people. The children are given the following verse to read:

The Best Things In Life ²

Beauty says the Artist
Sport says the Athlete
Kindness says the Child
Healing says the Doctor
Power says the Engineer
Abundance says the Farmer
Pleasure says the Fool
Food says the Glutton
Commerce says the Merchant
Money says the Miser
Order says the Policeman
Rest says the Toiler.

The teacher should first ascertain if the children understand all the terms applied to the various occupations. e.g. glutton, toiler, etc. The teacher should then ask the children to write down the first thing they think of when they think of beauty, sport, etc. This exercise should be done very quickly allowing no discussion. The responses will be examined later in the lesson.

By discussing such words as "best," "good," "bad," the children should realize that such abstract words mean many different things for many different people. The teacher might ask the children what they would consider the "best" thing in life. The verse can then be examined to see if the children can state why each person in the verse chooses something very different.

The children's responses could then be examined. The teacher might list the words from Beauty, Sport, Kindness, Power on the blackboard and ask the children what they associate with these words. A variety of oral responses for each word could also be listed on the board to demonstrate that these words mean different things to different people. The teacher should conclude the lesson by eliciting the previous generalization from the class.

Lesson II

Aim: Further development of the previous aim.

The teacher asks the children to write down a word or phrase that is associated with the word she gives them. An example could be given on the blackboard: dentist - pain, toothache, fright, I hate going. The class is instructed to write down the first thing that comes to mind and not to be concerned with spelling errors.

Suggested words

- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|------------|
| 1. School | 5. Fun | 9. Boring |
| 2. Food | 6. Exciting | 10. Treat |
| 3. Punishment | 7. Arithmetic | 11. Tiring |
| 4. Slow | 8. Drugs | 12. Home |

Again, the variety of responses can be brought out through discussion. The children should be asked why they chose their particular response. In this way the teacher can elicit the response that the child's previous experience with the word influences the way meaning is associated with it. The teacher might ask the class to elaborate on one idea. My Fear; What I Consider Fun; What It Means To Be Brave, etc.

Lesson III

Aim: To demonstrate how word association is used to emphasize certain ideas. i.e. by using similes: cold, flat, green, heavy, light.

The teacher puts the above examples on the board and asks the class to give responses which they associate with these words.

Possible responses

cold - hot, winter, ice, etc.

flat - steep, hilly, plateau, bumpy, pancake.

If the class gives only synonyms or opposites of the word, prompt with such questions as, "can you think of anything that is cold, flat, etc.

After the responses have been given, go back to the first example and ask the children which word they would choose if they wished to emphasize the idea of coldness.

e.g. cold - hot, winter, ice, snow.

Possible choices might be words underlined. Continue to do this with the rest of the examples. Rewrite the responses as similes.

as cold as ice, etc.

Tell the class that phrases like the ones on the board are called similes. Elicit from the class that the word simile has the same root as

similar and that similar means like, or the same. Ask why these phrases are called similes. (The words in the phrases express similar ideas. e.g. cold and winter emphasize the idea of coldness.)

This lesson could be concluded by the class giving similes which they have heard. (These examples will probably be very common.)

Lesson IV

Aim: To help children appreciate original similes.

The following examples of poetry were taken from In The Early World by Elwyn S. Richardson. The poems are written by elementary school children.

1. Shell shapes curled round and round
like leaves long fallen
curved and brown.

(P.114)

2. Wolf spiders pounce like cats
catching birds and mice.

(P.114)

3. I see the grass blowing
like white shadows.

(P.122)

4. The grass looks like tiny tiny
trees only littler.

(P.130)

5. The earth turns around
Like a ripple
And swings
Through moon-space.

(P.134)

6. The blue heron stands in the early world
Looking a freezing blue bird in the morning.

(Preface)

The following examples are taken from an Ice Cream Cone Feeling.
(An anthology of writing from the Students of Alberta.)

7. Sunrise - a calm lake,
Smooth - like a sheet of green glass
Wind - it is shattered.

(P.17)

8. Summer days are fair,
Like a fawn which has been born,
Then autumn is here.

(P.18)

9. The colorful field
Looked like a giant's paintbox
Flooded with water.

(P.18)

10. The bright snow crackled
Like some wafers being crunched
In a white blanket.

(P.19)

11. The young green saplings
Stood at rigid attention
Like army soldiers.

(P.19)

12. The moon's like a hen
The stars her baby chickens
As they search for grain.

(P.19)

13. The storm broke out like
the rage of an animal
That tossed the town about.

(P.20)

14. It (fog) drifts through the air like
a soaring bird.

(P.25)

(The teacher may wish to choose her own examples of poetry rather than the cited examples to develop this lesson.)

Ask the children to give some examples of similes which were discussed in the previous lesson. The teacher lists these on the black-board separating those with one word and those with phrases:

A.

as green as grass.

B.

as slow as molasses in January

When several examples have been given, ask the class to tell what is different about those in column A and those in column B. Develop the idea that similes can be one word or several words depending upon the writer's preference.

Ask the class if they have heard these phrases many times. If the class has given some original similes, ask which they find the most unusual.

Develop the idea that the original similes are the most interesting and most effective. Give the class some examples of poetry. Ask them to identify the similes and state which ideas are being emphasized.

e.g. It (fog) drifts through the air
like a soaring bird.

i.e. The movement of the fog is being compared to the movement of a bird. The writer is emphasizing movement, not color.

In examples 3 and 4 grass is being compared; in example 3 the emphasis is on the movement of the grass. In example 4 the emphasis is on the appearance.

After discussion of the similes conclude the lesson with the generalization that these similes are effective because they create vivid mental images achieved by the writer's choice of words which have vivid associations.

Lesson V

Aim: To develop the ability to create original similes.

The stimulus used for this lesson is extremely important to motivate the children to create similes. The following outline suggests one procedure which can be varied according to the teacher's preference.

Decide upon a topic. e.g. Animals, Spiders, Wind, Rain, Storms, Nature, etc. N.B. The topic should be within the children's experience. The teacher should also try to awaken a new awareness of the subject. e.g. Rain - how it looks on a spattered window, how it feels to a flower, etc.

Possible Awareness Activities

1. Snow: Take the children out and let them tramp through the snow. Make them aware of the sound it makes under their boots; what it looks like on the ground, on their coat; how it feels through their boots, on their bare hands.
2. Spiders: Show them a picture of a spider. Take the class into the film room. In complete darkness, with the children lying on the floor, relate a story which involves a spider. For example, you are in bed and you are almost asleep, but suddenly you feel this tickling on your foot. You wriggle your foot, but the tickling moves up your body..... continue until it is on your chest, etc. You open your eyes and you see this great, black, monstrous spider..... How do you feel? How does it look to you?
3. Ask the children to bring in an object. e.g. leaf, shell, pebble, flower, piece of fur, pine cone, etc. Make the children aware of one aspect of the object: sound, color, form, movement, etc. Ask them to describe it.

Before the children attempt to create their own similes it would be advisable to create some similes orally in a class discussion.

Following are some questions which might help the children in this process:

Spider - is spindly
 - like/as a minute octopus
 - where/when/how - which has been frozen

This example focuses on appearance of the spider.

Spider - pounces
 - like/as an animal after its prey.
 - where/when/how -

This example focuses on the movement of the spider.

Spider - scares me
 - like/as a cat scares a bird.
 - where/when/how - before the moment of execution.

This example focuses on the feelings felt by the children of the spider.

Lesson VI

Aim: To conclude the unit by giving the class a poetry selection so that the children can choose similies and words which they find effective.

This lesson may be approached in several ways:

1. The teacher gives the children a copy of a poem and it is discussed as a class.
2. The teacher divides the class into small groups and gives each group a copy of a poem or allows the group a choice.
3. The teacher asks each child to select a few lines from their favorite story or poem. The choices are then discussed.

An Example: Trees, giant bushes
 Painting the sky navy blue
 Adding fluffy clouds.

The teacher might ask why the writer called the trees 'bushes'. Would 'making' instead of painting be as effective? Would white clouds be as effective as fluffy? What kinds of things are associated with fluffy?

Example B: The sun goes to bed
 Leaving the scorched horizon
 To nurse its sunburn.

What kind of picture does this verse create? What kind of day has it been? How does the writer tell you this? What kinds of things do you associate with 'scorched'? Discuss the phrase 'nurse its sunburn'. Could anyone suggest a verse that would describe a sunset on a cold day?

To conclude this lesson the teacher should elicit the generalization that writers use word associations to create vivid images.

Enrichment Activities

1. Charts of words that are rhythmical. Words that lure and beckon. Words that make us feel sad, happy, etc. Using the words from the charts the children could make up advertisements. Bring in cut-out advertisements, note the words they use and the picture. Develop the idea that advertisers use words, color and form to sell their products.

e.g. menthol cigarettes usually advertise with a picture of a cool, green forest or cool clear water to emphasize the freshness.

Discuss the associations.

2. Making up similies in the reverse order. Teacher gives such words:
....as a dinosaur as an old shoe as a spent match.³
3. Verbs from the habits of animals which emphasize one characteristic.

e.g. to ape	to ferret
to badger	to fox
to crow	to hound
to dog	to ram
to duck	to wolf

4. Description of people that remind us of animals.

e.g. basset-hound eyes, hawk-like eyes, beak-like nose, pug-nose, etc.

5. What ideas do you associate with the following:

tortoise:	e.g. age, durability, slowness. ⁴
fog	snowflake
ice cream	an ocean
baby shoes	pair of scissors
garbage man	postage stamp
lake	broken window
mushroom	

6. You are a manufacturer of a new toy. Name it. Design the packaging.⁵
Write the advertising.
7. Teach the children to write Haiku.
8. Give the children interesting sentences.

e.g. The waves came rolling in.

Ask them to modify the whole sentence with words associated with waves.

e.g. Dancing, frothing, curling, swishing, the waves came rolling in.

UNIT FOUR MEANINGS BASED ON EXPLANATION

The purpose of this unit is to show the uses of different synonyms to develop precision in vocabulary.

The first few lessons develop the following ideas about synonyms:

- (1) Use of a synonym: to show meanings of words similar in meaning.
- (2) Sometimes the replacement of a word by a synonym is inadequate.
- (3) Context influences synonyms.
- (4) Choosing the most precise synonym. This activity attempts to develop a vocabulary of the senses.
- (5) The gradation of synonyms along a sense dimension, e.g., smile, giggle, laugh, chuckle, guffawed (p. 6)

The last lesson in this unit reviews antonyms.

UNIT IV

Aim of the Unit: To demonstrate how meaning can be derived from the explanation of words. i.e. definitions, synonyms, antonyms, etc.

Lesson I

Aim: To show that a meaning of a word can often be understood by replacing it by another word with the same meaning which is called a synonym. (2) To show the inadequacy of some synonyms. i.e. a word may be replaced by a synonym which is unknown to the reader.

First, the teacher should develop the concept of a synonym if not already understood. This procedure may be taught by writing some examples on the board and asking the class for oral responses.

For example: The teacher writes on the board:

1. steal - rob
2. sad - unhappy
3. car - (automobile)
4. equal - (same)
5. award - (prize)
6. whole - (complete)

The teacher supplies the answer for 1 and 2, the class provides the answers for 3 to 6. The class is then asked to complete the following exercise.

Can you spot synonyms when you see them? In each line below there¹ are three words. Only two are synonyms; that is, two words share the same meaning. Write the word that is not a synonym.

1. category, class, weakness.
2. baffled, tardy, frustrated.
3. yield, succumb, succeed.
4. happy, adept, skillful.
5. admire, esteem, betray.
6. enormous, sufficient, adequate.
7. tremble, jump, shudder.
8. timely, seasonable, daily.
9. quality, desire, characteristic.
10. misgiving, qualm, disease.
11. plentiful, complete, ample.
12. delay, plot, conspiracy.

This exercise may be marked orally discussing the reasons for the correct responses. (If the lesson has already taken sufficient time, it would be opportune to stop at this point and continue with the second half of the lesson on another occasion.)

Tell the class: Young John Smith wants to know the meanings of the following words. (see below) He asks his friend Mr. Brown. Mr. Brown's replies are opposite those of John's. Do you think Mr. Brown was helpful?

<u>John</u>	<u>Mr. Brown</u>	<u>Possible Class Response</u>
1. Catastrophe	Calamity	A terrible mishap
2. Loiter	Skulk	Sneak
3. Lamentation	Dolefulness	Weeping
4. Transparent	Translucent	Clear
5. Robust	Stalwart	Strong
6. Vanquish	Conquer	Defeat
7. A wound	Abrasion	A cut
8. Cunning	Devious	Sly
9. Enemy	Antagonist	Foe
10. Intelligent	Astute	Clever

The above items in the first two columns could be put on the board or the children could be given a copy. Instruct them to look at the first word in the first column. If they know the word ask them to supply a simpler word in the third column. If they do not know the word they could use the dictionary. The remainder of the exercise could be completed in this manner. (This exercise may also be completed orally with the teacher filling in the responses on the chalkboard.)

Through discussion develop the following ideas.

1. Mr. Smith was not helpful because he gave a synonym which John did not know. Emphasize that sometimes dictionaries can be like Mr. Smith.
2. Ask them if their dictionaries are as confusing as Mr. Smith. Why or why not? Compare a dictionary with the reading book glossary. Which is more informative? Why? Glossaries usually give 1) simpler synonyms, 2) pictures, 3) context clues, 4) examples, 5) explain function, (action of).
3. The reason for studying synonyms is not primarily to add new meaning to vocabulary but to add new words to meanings already known.

Lesson 11

Aim: To show that context influences the choice of synonyms.
i.e. they are not always used interchangeably.

Synonyms are useful in suiting your language to the occasion. How does one know when they are suitable? The right choice often depends upon our experience with a word in reading, writing and listening. Sometimes the choice of synonym is simple. For example, evident, has the following synonyms:

clear	obvious
apparent	plain

It was evident that Tommy's mother was angry with him.

All the given synonyms can be used instead of evident.

Complete the following exercise. Use your dictionary if necessary.

Decide which synonym or synonyms fit each of the sentences that follow the word in capital letters.

FAIR a) Just b) Blond c) Impartial d) Clear

1. Every criminal deserves a fair trial. (a,c)
2. Fortunately, we had fair skies throughout our trip on the lake. (d)
3. It is not fair to make us do so much work. (a)
4. A good umpire should be fair to both teams. (a,c)
5. Mary has long, shiny, fair hair. (b)

FAITHFUL a) Loyal b) Accurate c) Dependable

1. This is a faithful copy of the original painting. (b)
2. Andrew gave a faithful report of the accident. (b)
3. Despite the hardship of war, the sailors remained faithful to Admiral Nelson. (a)
4. For twenty years Mrs. Green was a faithful servant to the Governor. (a,c)

GRAVE a) Important b) Dangerous c) Solemn

1. Father has a grave decision to make concerning the new position at the office. (a)
2. The judge rose and spoke in a grave voice. (c)
3. The Premier was suddenly struck with a grave illness. (b)
4. The plight of the miners trapped in the shaft was very grave. (b)

CLEAR a) Bright b) Logical c) Open d) Distinct

1. As the sun rose the sky was very clear. (a)
2. John presented a very clear argument for no homework. (b)
3. The thief left a very clear set of finger prints on the door of the safe. (d)
4. By evening the rocks had been removed from the Roger's Pass and the road was clear. (c)

5. As the space capsule travelled nearer to earth its odd structure became clear. (d)

Lesson III

Aim: To show that meaning can be given to a word by replacing it with a word that has almost the same meaning.

The teacher puts the following frame on the board:

small - tiny
 hungry - starving
 smile - laugh
 damp - wet
 cool - cold
 warm - hot
 look - glance
 yell - scream
 excellent - good
 jump - leap

Through discussion it can be demonstrated that the ideas which the words represent are similar but the words differ in the degree to which that idea is represented. e.g. Cool and cold convey the notion of coldness but cold and cool would not always be used interchangeably. Examples of the different uses of cool and cold (bringing out the difference in degree of coldness) could be elicited from the class. e.g. I cannot drink this coffee until it is cool. I cannot drink this coffee because it is cold.

The rest of the examples could be discussed in this manner. To conclude the lesson the teacher might complete one of the following exercises.

1. Elicit more oral examples of similar words from the class.
2. Ask the class to select 3 pairs of similar words and put each one in context to demonstrate the difference between these words.
3. Divide the class in to two groups. A person in Group A says a word, e.g. dry; a person in Group B replies with a suitable word, e.g. arid, and states why it is slightly different.

N.B. Allow the class time to look for several pairs of similar words as their words may be used before their twin. Caution the children to give words which they themselves could answer.

Lesson IV

Aim: To develop the ability to choose the more precise word when several words can express a similar idea. i.e. different words to express how we speak, move, look, touch.

This lesson may be approached in the following ways:

1. Teacher may list words on the blackboard given by the class.
2. Teacher may divide the class into four groups and assign each group a word. e.g. Look. Ask the group to enumerate the different ways of looking.
3. The teacher may prepare four charts to be used in the classroom for continued use. This last approach will be outlined and this technique could be adapted to approach 1 and 2.

The teacher prepares 4 charts. A suitable picture may be placed on the appropriate chart. (Mouth, eyes, legs, and hands to represent speaking, seeing, moving, touching.) These charts are placed on the blackboard and the children are asked to give her several examples for each chart. A sample sentence may help the children if examples are not forthcoming.

Chart I - Speaking

The sample sentence put on the board could be:

"Look out," said Mary.
 yelled
 screamed
 whispered

Chart II - Moving

Bill went down the street.
 ran
 trotted
 meandered

Chart III - Touching

The jockey touched the horse.
 patted
 caressed
 whipped

Chart IV - Looking

Jane looked at the book.
 glimpsed
 glanced
 stared

When several examples are written on each chart, the class can be divided into four groups. A leader is chosen to write the group's responses

on the chart. Ask the group leader to check each entry for spelling errors before they are placed on the chart. These charts may be displayed in the room and the children could add to them as they find new words.

Enrichment Activities

1. Find more specific words to describe texture, taste and smell.

touch - smooth, crinkly, rough.
taste - bitter, acidic, juicy.
smell - pungent, odorous, acrid.

2. 'A bunch of' is an expression which is often overworked. Can you find a more precise word in the following examples to replace 'a bunch of'.

1. A bunch of people at a football game. (spectators)
2. A bunch of people who teach at one school. (staff)
3. A bunch of people in church. (congregation)
4. A bunch of people watching a play. (audience)
5. A bunch of people in the street. (crowd)
6. A bunch of people in a rowdy scene. (rabble, mob)
7. A bunch of food in the cupboard. (groceries)
8. A bunch of horses pulling a cart. (team)
9. A bunch of papers in a desk. (file)
10. A bunch of shots from a gun. (fusillade)
11. A bunch of stars in the sky. (galaxy)
12. A bunch of wool in the store. (skein)
13. A bunch of lawmen after the criminal. (posse)
14. A bunch of arrows. (quiver)
15. A bunch of laborers working in the street. (gang)

Lesson V

Aim: To further the development of the previous aim by focusing on the gradation of certain words.

The teacher gives the class the following exercise:

1. (Sound) giggled, laughed, smiled, guffawed, chuckled.
2. (Feeling) punched, touched, battered, tapped, knocked.
3. (Speaking) shrieked, talked, shouted, whispered, roared.
4. (Touch) fingered, slapped, patted, caressed, walloped.
5. (Movement) march, sauntered, strode, walked, shuffled.
6. (Sound) crooned, hummed, chant, yodelled, sang.
7. (Seeing) looked, stared, glimpsed, gazed, glanced.

Do example one with the class. e.g. If a joke is amusing, we might (smile); very amusing, (giggle); extremely amusing, (chuckle); hilarious, (laugh); extremely hilarious, (guffaw).

Lesson VI

Aim: To demonstrate that meaning can be illustrated by giving the opposite meaning of a given word.

The teacher asks the class what the following words mean:

	<u>Possible answers</u>
absent	- (away, not here, not present)
adult	- (grown up, not a child)
tame	- (trained, not wild)

Write down all the possible answers and then focus on the answers which tell what the word is not like. Elicit the response from the class that this is another way in which we can show the meaning of a word. Develop the idea that these words (the opposites) are called antonyms, if not already known.

Put the following sentence on the board:

- a. Mr. Green was not a coward because he remained to fight the dangerous forest fire and prevented the destruction of the village.

Ask the class what they would call Mr. Green. He was a (hero). Which key words gave them the answer (not a coward)?

Instruct the children to complete the following exercise in the same manner.

1. Mr. Jefferson was extremely proud of his 1905 Ford model. Even though his car was not modern it served him efficiently. Mr. Jefferson's car was (ancient, old).
2. Jimmy did not want to reveal his mother's surprise gift so he put it in the garage. Jimmy (concealed, hid) his mother's gift.
3. Your batting average for this year was far superior to your average last year. Last year's batting average was (inferior, worse) than this year's attempt.
4. The temperature in Edmonton ranges from 80° to -40°. The maximum is 80°, the (lowest, minimum) is -40°.
5. A temporary bridge was made until the construction of the other bridge was completed. The other bridge would be (permanent).
6. You make numerous mistakes if you are careless but (few) mistakes if you are careful.

7. The curtains were not opaque so the film could not be shown in that room. The curtains were (transparent, clear).
8. Mr. Eggity was no miser, indeed, money seemed to burn a hole in his pocket. Mr. Eggity was a (spendthrift).
9. The prisoners were not at liberty to leave the grounds. The prisoners were in (captivity).
10. "This park is not a public place," yelled the keeper. "Would you please leave." The park was (private).

UNIT FIVE UNIT BASED ON CLASS MEMBERSHIP

The introductory lesson attempted to show that meaning can be illustrated by stating class membership. This lesson is followed by several classification exercises. The following lessons involve reducing many specific terms to general class names in an attempt to show that the use of such terms is appropriate for certain kinds of writing. Other lessons reverse this process, that is, the pupil is required to give more specific instances of a class word in order to show how this can be effective in creative writing. The remainder of the lessons in the unit serve as culminating activities for the five units.

UNIT V

Aim of the Unit: To show that the meaning of a word can be understood by stating the class to which it belongs. e.g. apple - food.

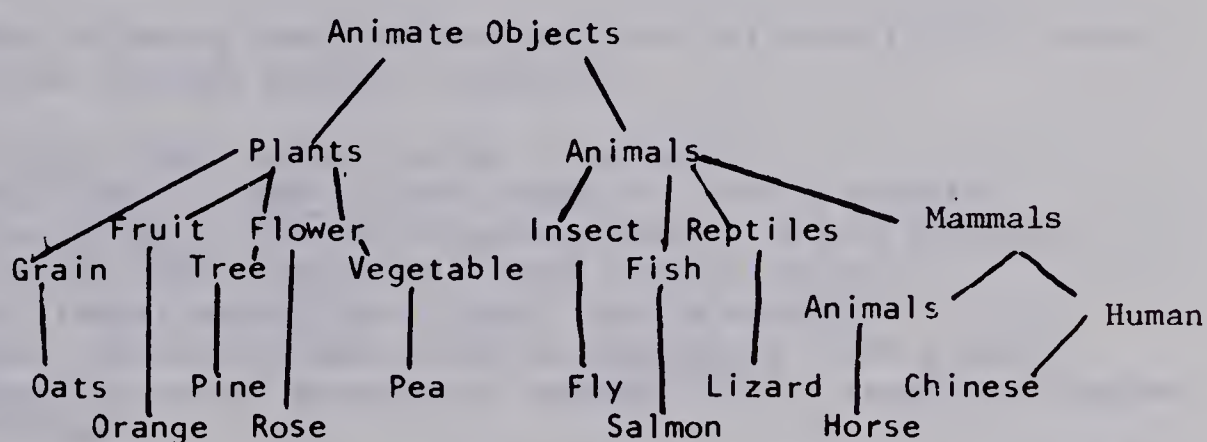
Lesson I

Aim: To develop the ability to classify.

Write the following words on the board:

A.	school	B.	teacher
	truck		banana
	table		rose
	desk		whale
	cup		fly

Ask the pupils to look at the two groups of words on the board to see if they can identify the basis for grouping. Through discussion elicit the response that the words in column A are inanimate objects, those in column B are animate. Elicit more examples from the class. Through further discussion develop the idea that animate things consist of creatures and plants. Creatures can eat, grow and move from place to place. Plants are fixed by roots. Discuss the further subclasses of animate objects. The following diagram may help to clarify this idea.



Develop the diagram with the class. Elicit general class names. For example: Ask the class to name somethings which grow but are fixed. i.e. plants.

Possible responses: carrots, maple tree, orange.

Take one example from the possible responses. e.g. carrot. Elicit the general class name and other examples which belong to this class of plants. Use this procedure to develop the remainder of this diagram and the diagram to show various subclasses of inanimate objects.

Conclude the lesson with the generalization that certain things can be placed in certain general classes because of its resemblance to other things or because of its purpose or use.

Lesson 11

Aim: Further development of the previous aim.

Following are several exercises based on classification. They are in order of difficulty. Begin with the exercise you consider suitable for your own class.

Exercise I

Write one name for each of the following groups. The first one is done for you.

1. Lion, bear, goat, mouse - animal.
2. Jacket, blouse, trousers, skirt (clothes)
3. Lawyer, butcher, engineer, doctor (occupations)
4. Truck, bus, fire engine, car (vehicles)
5. Dish, saucer, mug, cup (crockery)
6. Wheat, maize, oats, barley (grain)

Exercise II

In the following exercise one word does not seem to fit. Underline the one you consider wrong. State why.

1. Hen, robin, duck, goose, turkey (not game)
2. Diamond, emerald, pearl, ruby, sapphire (not a mineral)
3. Alberta, Calgary, British Columbia, Quebec (not a province)
4. Rain, sleet, snow, heat, hail (not precipitation)
5. Shield, lance, dagger, gun, spear (not a weapon)
6. Cottage, mansion, palace, bungalow, warehouse (not a home)
7. Holidays, journeys, excursions, voyages, trips (need not involve travelling)
8. Man, boy, master, princess, uncle (not a name given to a male)
9. Canada, Italy, Ottawa, France, England (not a country)
10. Spinster, lady, neice, uncle, sister (Not a name given to a woman)

Exercise III

Find the 'Stray' Animal. In each of the following lists an animal is out of place. Circle the animal which doesn't belong and state why.

1. Penguin, pheasant, ostrich, cat.
2. Zebra, donkey, buffalo, horse.
3. Wolf, leopard, lion, tiger.

- e. thorax, abdomen, head
(all parts of the body)
- f. spelling, diamond cutting, arithmetic
(skills which have to be learned)

Exercise VI

Each item in the groups of words given below has something in⁴ common with the other two items in its group. When you think that you have discovered what the three things have in common, write your answer on the line beneath the three words. You may use your dictionary to determine the meaning of any word you do not understand.

- a. teacup, envelope, shoe
(all containers)
- b. window, door, mouth
(all openings)
- c. tears, perspiration, laughter
(all produced by the body)
- d. rye, wheat, rice
(grain)
- e. promotion, trophy, blue ribbon
(rewards)
- f. radio, magazine, drum
(used for communication)
- g. firefly, Northern Star, kerosene lamp
(shine)
- h. razor, computer, dentist drill
(all man made)

N.B. The important part of these exercises is not the correct response but the reason for classification. Allow children to explain why they chose a certain response even if it is not correct. For this reason these exercises should be marked orally. Attempt only one exercise per class period.

Lesson III

Aim: To develop the ability to use general class terms.

Tell the class Mr. Smith wants to write a sign giving the following information. How could he do it in a few words?

1. apples, pears, plums, cherries - half price
2. lettuce, radishes, potatoes, carrots - half price
3. beef, pork, lamb, veal - half price

Half price sale on fruits, vegetables and meats OR Half price sale on all fresh foods.

N.B. Point out that these general terms convey more information in fewer words than specific examples. However, point out unless a person knows what is meant by these terms they would carry no information at all.

Instruct the children to complete the following exercise:

Can you make signs to convey the following information?

1. Do not give the lions, tigers, monkeys, elephants any peanuts, bread, candy or fruit. (Do not feed the animals.)
2. All cars, buses, trucks and bicycles must pay money to cross this bridge. (All vehicles must pay bridge toll.)
3. One spray kills roaches, mosquitoes, flies, ants, beetles and wasps. (One spray kills all insects.)
4. This coat can be worn in spring, summer, autumn and winter. (A coat for all seasons.)
5. Bring your sister, aunt, uncle, neice and nephew to see this show. (Bring all your family (relations) to see this show.)

Lesson IV

Aim: Further development of the previous aim.

The teacher writes the following example on the board:

- a. Mr. Brown, Mr. Bell, Mr. Smith, Mr. White, Mr. Green and Mr. Simpson of Blackton, stated that the rain, snow, frost and wind had ruined their barley, oats and wheat.

Tell the class the above example was a news item in the local farmer's newspaper. Ask them if they think it is suitable. Why or why not? Develop the idea that newspapers try to convey as much news as possible in the available space. Ask the pupils if they can provide a shorter news item but still contain the same information. If the responses are not forthcoming develop this idea in the following way.

1. What general name can be given for Mr. Bell, Mr. Brown, etc. (residents of Blackton)
2. What general term can be applied to rain, snow, etc. (bad weather)
3. For barley, oats, etc. (crops)

The news item would then read:

Resident's of Blackton stated that bad weather ruined their crops.

Instruct the class to edit the following sentences in a similar way.

1. The strike by the men who unload the ships at Montreal, Halifax and

Vancouver has delayed the shipment of the oil, timber, and wheat to U.S.A. and the U.K. (Dockers' strike at Canadian ports delay exports.)

2. Cyclamate must not be added to Tab and Fresca nor canned fruits or sweeteners because it is dangerous for health. (Cyclamate in food and drinks a health hazard or unhealthy.)
3. British Columbia, Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta dislike the new laws to raise money imposed by the Government of Canada. (Western provinces dislike new tax laws imposed by the Federal Government.)
4. The kids between the ages of 12 - 19 years screamed, yelled and ripped the clothes of the singing star who they idolized. ("Teenagers mob singing idol.")
5. Anyone who lives in Canada must pay more money to travel by bus, car, train, ship or plane. (Canadians pay higher transportation costs.)

If this exercise is too difficult for the children to complete individually it could be done orally with the whole class.

N.B. Conclude the lesson with the generalization that these general terms convey a lot of information.

Lesson V

Aim: To show that general class names are not as suitable in descriptive writing.

The teacher puts the following examples on the board:

1. Jack was so greedy that he ate all the food.
2. Jack was so greedy that he gobbled down the hamburgers, weiners, apple pie and ice cream.

Tell the class that two children were asked to write a description of Jack. Which do they prefer? Why? Elicit the generalization that in descriptive writing the concern is with creating vivid pictures by using specific words.

Instruct the class to do the following exercise. Do the first example orally.

Can you make these sentences more imaginative by replacing the word or words underlined without changing the meaning of the sentence?

1. Many different boats were in the harbor.

e.g. An elegant white schooner, a red skiff and a tiny blue-sailed yatch nestled in the harbor.

2. The big dog bit three people in three different places.
3. Mr. Brown used nice colors to paint the different parts of his house.
4. The old house had many things that scared me.
5. Toni's room was untidy because he left things everywhere.

LESSON VI

Aim: To realize the appropriateness of class names and specific words must be judged in terms of the purpose of the writing.

Remind the class of the previous lesson. Ask them where examples of such writing might be found.

e.g. Story writing.

Poetry.

Reading books.

Ask the class to refer back to the previous lessons in which they replaced specific words with general class names. Why - (give a lot of information). Ask them where they might find examples of such writing? Ask for examples.

1. Math - Any number when subtracted from the same number equals zero. This information tells us: $2 - 2 = 0$, $4 - 4 = 0$, etc.
2. Science - Fish need water to survive. This tells us: Salmon need water to survive, Whitefish need water to survive, etc.
3. Enterprise - Alberta has many resources. This tells us: Alberta has wheat, oil, tar sand, coal and natural gas, etc.
4. Formal Writing - "Our class would like to express their appreciation for your visit." This tells us: John said "It was great.", Mary said "I enjoyed that.", etc.

Instruct the class to complete the following exercise.

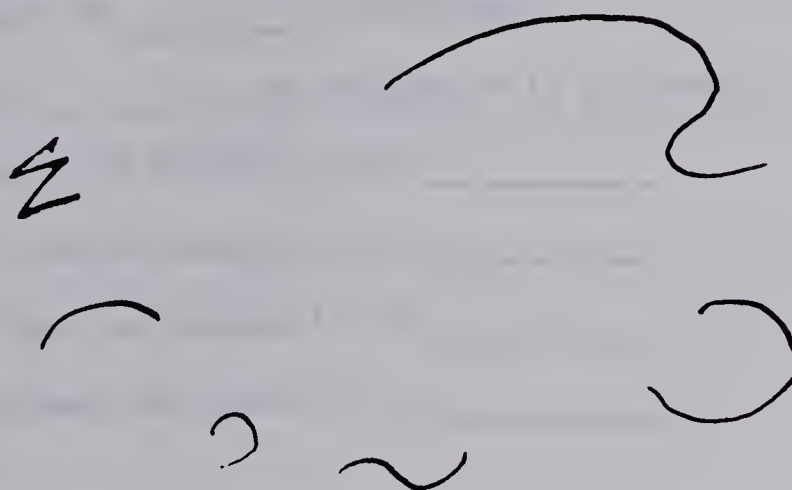
Change these sentences to suit an Enterprise report:

1. The Saskatchewan River meanders merrily through the heart of Edmonton.
2. The power plant snorts out its bad breath which chokes the clean, cool air.
3. Every July, Edmonton dresses up in her finery and holds a festive party to celebrate her memories of her Klondike youth.

Change the following sentences to suit a short story:

1. The rock fell down the mountain hitting a car.
2. The crowd applauded the performance.
3. The child had a temper tantrum.

CULMINATION OF THE UNITS



3. 1. What do the following lines remind you of? Make a sketch of the object you think of when you see the lines. You may use as many of the lines or colors as you wish. Draw your picture and make the lines a part of whatever you draw.
 - (1) Describe your 'thing'.
 - (2) What quality or ability do you like best about the thing you have drawn? Does it have one feature which is particularly pleasing or useful?
2. Complete the following analogies.

If the class does not know what an analogy is, go through the following examples orally.

Boy is to girl as man is to woman. (opposite)
 Kitten is to cat as puppy is to dog. (young)

Instruct the children to look for the relationship between the first two objects and then find the same relationship between the third and fourth word.

1. Kayak is to riding on water as observatory is to _____.
2. Coward is to hero as liberty is to _____.
3. Team is to horses as posse is to _____.
4. Donkey is to neigh as beetle is to _____.
5. Toe is to foot as _____ is to hand.
6. Artist is to _____ as conductor is to baton.
7. Big is to large as evident is to _____.
8. Small is to tiny as hungry is to _____.
9. Lemon is to sour as sponge is to _____.
10. Rose is to flower as silver is to _____.

Allow the children to complete the exercise individually but mark the exercise orally stressing the relationship between each pair of words.

<u>Answer</u>	<u>Relationship</u>
1. looking at stars	use of
2. captivity	antonym
3. lawmen	general name given to a group or things.
4. drone or hum	action of
5. finger	whole part.
6. palette	common use
7. apparent, clear	synonym
8. starving	similarity
9. slow, lazy	or other suitable words stressing quickly.
10. metal	general term classification.

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